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JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Clearing House

APRIL



The High School in the Depression

ALBERT B. MEREDITH, Chairman

Editorial: The High School in the Depression

P. W. L. Cox

Improvement and Economy in Secondary School Administration

William C. Ravvis

Where Shall We Economize in Secondary Education?

Bancroft Bentley

Will the High Schools Suffer?

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The High School of the Future

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ALBERT B. MEREDITH, *Chairman*

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NEXT MONTH

Topic for the May issue of *The Clearing House*

"LEISURE—THREAT OR PROMISE?"

DR. J. B. NASH
*New York University
Chairman*



Articles in this number by President George B. Cutten of Colgate University; Willard W. Beatty, Supt. of Schools, Bronxville, N.Y.; Joy Elmer Morgan, editor of the Journal of the N.E.A.; Warren W. Coxe, New York State Department of Education; Orrin C. Lester, vice-president of the Bowery Savings Bank, New York City; Ben Solomon, editor of "Camp Life."



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EDITORIAL

The High School in the Depression

ARE WE REAPING AS WE HAVE SOWN?

The depression bears severely on the American high school for several reasons.

1. Many cities and States have followed a financial policy during the past fifteen years which has been premised on an assumption of continued and increasing prosperity. This financial policy has collapsed.

2. Taxation systems are obsolete and antiquated; they bear with peculiar severity on home owners whose incomes have been decreased, who have been called upon to help support victims of the depression, who are nervous and jittery.

3. There is a regrettable and almost universal ignorance of social processes and their economic foundations on the part not only of youths and adults who have been educated in American schools and colleges; but even on the part of teachers in schools and colleges—including teachers of the social sciences.

4. The war and the subsequent superficial prosperity have accentuated widespread acceptance of false standards—worship of formality, emptiness, loudness, grafters, "business leaders," big shots—among youths and adults and teachers.

5. These false standards reflect the suppressed fear and insecurity current in our so-called "industrial civilization" which have resulted in stultified mental stereotypes and

social docility, such as have been promoted by Babbitt-like communities, institutions, and schools.

One may assert with great positiveness that *the schools must be supported*. But *why* should they be supported? For the last quarter century, we have had an opportunity to control, at least in part, the education of large numbers of children well into their adolescent years. Can we honestly assert that our high-school and college graduates are one whit less ignorant of essential knowledges and skills that are of importance to positive social living than are those persons who have had little or no school education?

One may demand that teachers' salaries be paid; but one should temper the demand with the hope that teachers may have initiative enough to find out what the causes of the depression are and to support the political and economic groups that seem to them to offer the best solutions for solving the trouble. By now they should have studied to find out what money is; what wealth is; how taxes are levied; what effect tax levies have on property values; what international relations, tariffs, speculation, etc., have to do with the depression; what debts are; and what the justifications and implications of bonds and of insurance and bank mortgages are.

It is doubtless tactless to ask the ques-

tions. But is there any justification for tax money, which is so difficult to pay and so difficult to collect, to be squandered for high-school teachers to perform the futile task of hearing children recite dates and declensions? Can we sincerely argue with intelligent citizens who challenge the right of our high schools to public support?

What of tomorrow? No man can know what lies ahead. It would seem that creditors might become enlightened—might see that they have more to gain by scaling down debts than by maintaining silly nominal values which crash towards zero as the days go by. The granting of moratoriums to mortgagors and the as yet rather timid support for generously conceived public-works programs gives some hope for a dangerously belated triumph of intelligence—but a triumph for which the public schools can take little credit beyond that implied in literacy.

Nevertheless, history does not justify the hope that intelligence will play much part in the developments of the next twelve or twenty-four months. Hence, the schools may scarcely hope for a speedy solution by the muddle-headed social groups either within or outside the school who so curse secondary education. Do teachers as well as bankers fear that thinking might cause discomfort and uncertainty? And so will they both undergo catastrophes rather than risk challenging their own darling slogans and disturbing their profound inertias? If so, then fascist revolution or communist revolution, probably the former, looms ahead.

What is the matter with us and with the public? There are many causes for our acquiescence in the policies resulting from our national stupidity. One of them is the protection of the national superiority complex which we have absorbed from our social milieu; subtly have the movies, radio, newspapers, advertisements, "patriotic" societies, and chambers of commerce indoctrinated us. Any challenge of our institu-

tions and customs, any unfavorable comparison of our political or economic systems with those of England or Russia, is stamped as unpatriotic and un-American.

Another cause is that our supporters and friends in the community are well-meaning and pleasant people, who counsel us to "take it" without protest. They have helped us to better salaries in the past; they honestly dislike to postpone or reduce our salaries at this time.

"Take it" we must, of course. And it is true that our counselors have in many cases been hard hit themselves. Nevertheless, a reasonable amount of careful reading and earnest cogitation must convince us that both the local business men and we are riding with stupid recklessness to very serious trouble in the next few years, in a mad spiral of deflation whereby unemployment and lower wages constantly decrease purchasing power and result in even more unemployment and lower wages.

The fundamental difficulty is not due to technology, nor to economic law, nor to distribution; these factors are mere instrumentalities to be reckoned with. There is adequate knowledge and skill to produce enough wealth, to make practices conform to economic law, and to distribute articles of use to every one. Buying power can quickly be reestablished by radical taxation and lavish governmental expenditure on the promotion of socially desirable conditions including generously conceived realistic secondary and adult education and recreation. By such a policy, supported as it is by every competent economist in the country, the unemployed would be given opportunities to return to work; the marts of trade would again be busy; the income of all conservative investors would be reestablished. The absurd and idle overvalued dollar, now worth \$1.62, would automatically be reduced to normal level and those who have or will have incomes will gladly spend them when "dol-

EDITORIAL

lars" are worth no more than commodities. Money obeys the law of supply and demand as truly as do wheat and steel.

The fundamental difficulty is the stupidity and inertia of the very people who have been stultified by the public schools, the press, the theater, the country club, the radio, athletics, fashions, and advertising during the last decade and a half. We teachers are paying a price—the full severity of which is as yet restricted to communities that have played fast and loose with social inertias and crowd processes, but which will eventually strike those of us who teach in conservative and usually well-financed communities. This price is chargeable directly to the stultification of youths during the past decade and a half. And in this process of stultification, high schools and colleges have ably reinforced country clubs, chambers of commerce, department stores, and professional athletics.

Demands and appeals are useless. Almost every day some spokesman pleads with the public and its representatives not to deny to children their birthrights. The speakers or writers are silent about or applaud "rigid economy" in general; they merely demand that the schools shall not suffer by it. It is futile to appeal for increased State aid or for national aid so long as the deflationists are in control. It is even more futile to fight back at the misguided civic organizations, local governments, and politicians of our school districts. Unfairness does occur and should, of course, be protested; in some places teachers have had their pay reduced before the policemen and firemen have taken "pay cuts." But the causes of reduced salaries of teachers and of the restriction of high-school opportunities for adolescent youths are two: the mad deflation demanded by bankers and by those whom they advise; and the belief that schools are luxuries rather than civic training institutions. Few conservative teachers challenge the defla-

tionary program; and a controlling fraction of academic teachers have acted as though they agreed that high schools are maintained for the mental delectation of a few chosen youths rather than for the civic education of all of them.

No teacher who supports the deflationary movement—who believes that the national and State governments and business enterprises should lay off thousands of employees and reduce the salaries or wages of those who are retained in service—has any just right to complain when he is dismissed or has his salary reduced. And no teacher who has held that many adolescents do not belong in school, who has failed large numbers, who has demanded docility and who has rewarded it by academic adornments—marks, prizes, honors—has any just right to complain if the public now agrees with him that the schools are mere adornments. To be a conservative is the privilege of any individual; but he should accept willingly the implications of conservatives.

What may teachers do in the emergency? Many of them can do nothing; they are "lost souls." This editorial is not written in the belief that any appeal to reason can be successful among those whose powers of reason have already atrophied. Hence it is not expected to help hard-boiled conservative teachers to see the light, nor even to reproach them for believing what they so honestly, though wrongly, do believe.

It is to the more humane and alert teachers in our public schools that the writer would appeal. He would urge that they support and that they should encourage all others to support every effort that our national and State and municipal governments may make to promote social welfare or to engage in slum clearances, health projects, parks and recreational projects, education, and road and bridge building. Let us not be frightened by the cry of "pork barrel," or of the ruining of established businesses, or

by the threat that wealthy people will invest their wealth in tax-exempt bonds. If once we can develop momentum towards orderly change, the readiness of the American people to protect themselves against shirkers will become apparent. And, as pointed out above, "tax-exempt" bonds and hoarding will be too expensive when money returns to normal value.

If human lives were not too sacred to be demanded and used by the government in 1917, private wealth need not be sacrosanct in 1933. And not until private wealth is put to work through radical taxation of income and reserves and estates for government expenditure for the social good can purchasing power be reestablished, can credit become fluid, can incomes be reestablished, can taxes for school purposes be levied, and, ironical as it seems, can private investment again become safe and profitable.

And if secondary education ever does reestablish itself in the esteem of the public; if the people ever again are willing to invest generously in public secondary schools in the hope that social progress may be promoted thereby, let those of us teachers who are mentally youthful, whose minds have not atrophied, and who accept no slogans without repeated challenges—let us see to it that the public is not bunked again. Let us insist that civic education, broadly conceived as individual realization in creatively controlled schools and communities, shall be the only major aim and method of education. All else must be subordinated to this aim and this method, coördinated with them, or omitted entirely.

Then can we be sincere and intelligent in our representations on behalf of secondary-school education!—P. W. L. C.

ADDENDUM

The editorial printed above had been completed, according to the secretary's orders, by March 1. Now along comes the bank moratorium and outmodes the editorial—the penalty of promptness!

Nevertheless, it stands. In the light of present developments it may help those who read it to understand how we have got this way. And it may serve as a basis for optimism!

Inflation is with us. The absurdly overvalued dollar is being deflated. Men who have been giving up property and services in order to protect their dollars, will now be more ready to expend their dollars, to purchase property and services. Hence, the social pressures on boards of education and on boards of estimate to reduce the expenses of education and other social services will probably be relaxed.

The public press reflects the calm acceptance of the coming of a new era. Walter Lippmann who has in the past so strongly demanded balanced budgets in the very year of calamity, and who has so sharply and convincingly pointed out the fallacy of printing-press-dollars, now welcomes moderate inflation even of the "scrip" type. Even the ultra-conservative *Herald Tribune* recognizes at last the inevitability of social chaos as a result of our mad deflation, and is resigned to the devaluation of the dollar.

So let us take heart. Happy days will soon be here again. We must build our schools more wisely than we did in the last period of prosperity. We must truly promote an educated citizenry. If we do so, the next depression will be more wisely dealt with.

—P. W. L. C.

IMPROVEMENT AND ECONOMY IN SECONDARY-SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

WILLIAM C. REAVIS

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Dr. Reavis in the following article shows clearly that the necessity for financial curtailment has been wisely used to effect needed administrative reorganization of our high schools. While the results of the changes upon the instructional efficiency of the school are still based upon qualitative judgments, much of what has been gained by a reexamination of the situation is utilized as an incentive to superior efforts towards economy in secondary-school administration.*

A. B. M.

PRICIPALS of secondary schools throughout the United States have had smaller budgets for administration this year than in any year since the depression began. Present prospects indicate that still further reductions must be made in the school budget for 1933-1934. An anomalous situation has thus been created in secondary-school administration; namely, an abnormal increase in the demand for secondary education and an alarming decrease in school funds. The increase in school enrollment has been accentuated (1) by the gain in holding power due to the suppression of opportunities for the employment of young people in business and industry, and (2) by the return of graduates and individuals who had formerly withdrawn and who now because of enforced idleness prefer to reënter the secondary school for whatever offerings are available rather than loaf.

The problems created by either phase of the situation if operating singly would present many difficulties in administration; but when the phases operate concurrently administrative demands are made which require a type of skill not previously called for in secondary-school administration. As a result the methods employed in the solution of the problem may or may not meet with the success desired.

Some principals, acting under orders of boards of education, have applied a method in solving the problems widely advocated by "self-styled" leaders in budget reform who would treat the school budget ruthlessly with the "pruning knife" as is the custom in business and industry when earnings decline.

Teaching positions have been eliminated cutting adrift professional workers of ability and merit; services have been curtailed or suppressed; course offerings have been reduced; penny-wise economies have been imposed; and parsimonious policies have been resorted to. This method is especially hazardous in educational administration, especially so when the demands for service are on the increase. If radical reductions in budget items likely to be attended with serious consequences appear to be required, the effects should be carefully calculated and the supporting public duly informed of the curtailment proposed in relation to the results anticipated before the reductions are actually made.

Other principals have viewed the problem of necessary economies in the light of a challenge, have analyzed their budgets in relation to the services provided, and have measured each possible economy with tested principles before putting the economy into effect. In brief, the problem in economy is solved through administrative efficiency. In such instances improvements in administration may have actually resulted through the practice of the economy required.

The thesis of this discussion involves the present necessity for budget economy as a challenge to administrative improvement. Stated in the form of a question, "Is it possible to improve administration in the secondary school while effecting important economies?" The evidence on which the possibility of economy is based is largely quantitative, while that in support of increased efficiency is chiefly qualitative. For example,

it can be shown by objective data that important economies in secondary-school administration have already been effected in many schools, ranging from very small to very large percentages of budget items. The effect of the economies, however, must be appraised subjectively and on such evidence must rest the claims for increased efficiency.

Quantitative data regarding the costs of secondary-school administration prior to the depression tend to indicate that administrative results were in some instances secured at excessive costs, thereby giving support to the hypothesis that in such instances administration has been wasteful and that the necessity for economy merely affords a timely occasion for needed improvements in administration. As support for this contention data can be cited showing the wide range in the total cost of administration in comparable secondary schools prior to the depression or the cost of specific items of administration, such as clerical assistance, telephone service, and graduation exercises.

Three examples will be given to show that the variation in the cost of administration in comparable schools prior to the depression affords a basis for the foregoing hypothesis.

1. School A had an enrollment of 912 and a cost for administration of \$27,350. School B enrolled 957 pupils and the cost of administration was \$11,973.

2. Schools C and D each enrolled 1,060 pupils and appeared to be administered satisfactorily, yet the per pupil cost for administration in the one was \$20.86 and in the other \$14.18.

3. Schools E and F enrolled 2,100 and 1,980 pupils, respectively. The cost of administration in School E was \$67,368, or \$32.08 per pupil, while in School F the cost was \$42,390, or \$21.40 per pupil.

Since the six schools enjoyed equal standing in the same accrediting association and appeared to be administered equally successfully, the challenge of economy in adminis-

tration would seem to apply to at least four schools of the group.

If the cost of the particular items of administration mentioned is compared, further support for the hypothesis is secured. The cost of clerical service in the six schools under consideration ranged from \$9.63 per pupil to \$1.31, telephone service from 20 cents per pupil to \$1.67, and graduation exercises 2 cents per pupil to \$1.00. Claim might be made, of course, that the services secured through the greater expenditures were desirable and therefore justifiable; yet the claims might stand without support if measured by the criteria of necessity and efficiency.

Marked variations in administrative costs, such as those cited, warrant the apprehension that officers of administration in secondary schools have not exercised equal regard for economical management. It is even possible that some administrative officers may have resorted to extravagance as a screen for inefficiency. The evidence seems to indicate that the necessity for economy produced by the depression affords the immediate motivation for a thoroughgoing evaluation of practices in administration.

Additional quantitative data could be produced to show that many administrative practices of secondary-school principals were not considered satisfactory several years ago and that great need for improvement existed. It can scarcely be assumed that all the improvement desired has taken place since that time. Only the most powerful incentives operating generally in secondary schools could bring about promptly the increase in administrative efficiency which the facts referred to appeared to warrant. In the absence of evidence to indicate the operation of such incentives, it is safe to assume that administrative practices have not been greatly modified and that the need for improvement still exists. Hence it is entirely possible that the necessity of economy might become

SECONDARY-SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

the powerful challenge needed to produce administrative improvement and that the two needs, economy and increased efficiency, might operate concurrently with positive effect.

That such desirable outcomes as economy and administrative improvement are possible cannot be doubted, if the qualitative judgment of a group of 17 secondary-school principals affords a valid basis for a conclusion. These principals were asked to list the economies in administration effected in their schools during the current year and to specify (1) those economies that had been attended with an increase rather than a decrease in administrative efficiency, (2) those that had not perceptibly affected the character of administration in the school, (3) those that had caused inconvenience and had tended to lower efficiency, and (4) those that had clearly resulted in the lowering of administrative efficiency. From these sources 197 specific administrative economies were secured with the amount of each economy indicated. The data thus obtained furnish the basis for the evaluation of the assumption implied in the subject assigned for discussion.

Only 9 of the 17 principals reported economies which had resulted in increased rather than decreased school efficiency. These officers listed 23 savings aggregating approximately \$58,000, or an average of \$8,300 to the school. The largest single item in the list consisted in salaries paid to teachers and administrative officers. Analysis of the savings indicates that the economy was effected not by cutting salaries, but chiefly through the reorganization of the staff. Duties of assistants, such as the assistant principal and dean of girls, were merged, thus providing for additional teaching service without increasing instructional costs. Heads of departments, formerly released from teaching duties, were assigned to classes and clerical assistance was provided which enabled these

officials to carry on departmental services not previously given. Class size was increased in virtually all of the schools thereby increasing the number of pupils to the teacher and thus reducing the per pupil cost of instruction.

If instructional efficiency were actually increased, as claimed by the administrative measures reported, it resulted evidently from the reorganizations effected because of the economies, rather than from the economies directly. The need for economy, therefore, appears to have served as an immediate motive for administrative reorganization, which in turn operated as a stimulus to instructional improvement. It is probably fair to assume that without the operation of the motive nothing would have happened to stimulate the staff to improvement and that any gain in instructional efficiency in the schools in question would have been the result of chance.

Approximately half of the savings effected were the direct result of improved management brought about by the need for economy. The janitorial service in some of the schools was reorganized by the principal, with the result that important savings were effected in regular cleaning and vacation repairs. A saving on repairs alone in one school aggregated \$4,000. The installation of stokers in another school netted a saving on fuel for the year of \$1,000. These savings, although small in amount, represent a substantial portion of the total economies effected. A factor of equal if not greater importance is the belief of the administrative officers that the changes which resulted in the economies were attended with increased efficiency to the school.

Administrative economies were also effected in the telephone service, in postage, in office supplies, and in assembly programs. While these savings were not large (total for three schools \$2,860), nevertheless they contributed to the size of the percentage of the

budget saved. In addition they invited administrative change, which, according to the judgment of the principals concerned, resulted in increased efficiency.

Each of the 17 principals reported a list of important economies effected through administration, which, in so far as they could tell, had not resulted in lowering the efficiency of the schools. These economies were extensive in scope, including 79 different items and aggregating over a quarter-million dollars (\$287,511).

The largest single saving was in the salaries of teachers and administrative officers. Analysis of the data reveals a very different kind of saving than was found in List 1. The saving in List 2 was effected by reduction in salaries, by the elimination of teachers, by the omission of bonuses for professional improvement, by the curtailment of educational supplies, by the reduction in the annual appropriation for the school library, and by increasing the number of class periods taught by the teachers.

The principals believe that the teachers, pupils, and parents have accepted all of the economy measures indicated as necessary and have not allowed the inconveniences entailed to interfere with the quality of the instructional work of the school. Unfavorable results have apparently been averted through full coöperation on the part of all concerned.

Economies in the operation and maintenance of plants, savings in insurance, the elimination of expense accounts for attendance at professional meetings, and the curtailment of office costs have enabled the administrative officers to make reductions in budget items which amount to percentages of considerable proportions. The evidence secured indicates that these economies have not as yet resulted in the lowering of the administrative efficiency of the officers of the schools.

Many petty economies were also included

in List 2, such as savings on express charges, legal services, telephone costs, fuel and light, graduation exercises, medical examinations, and the like. Some of the savings were as low as \$25.00 per school while others were as high as \$400.00. Although these savings constitute only a small percentage of the total school budget, yet they are considered important in that they represent a thrifty type of administration which seeks to avoid extravagance and waste. The claim of the principals who have made such savings is that school efficiency has not been lowered as a result.

Savings aggregating approximately \$200,000 for the 17 schools were reported in List 3 as causing inconvenience to principal, teachers, and pupils and tending to lower the efficiency of the school. Some of the principals placed in this list salary reductions and savings resulting from curtailments in repairs, equipment, and supplies. The chief effect of such savings in the judgment of the principals is personal inconvenience which tends to be reflected in the character and quality of school work.

It is difficult to see how a claim for increased efficiency could be supported in connection with some of the economies specified in List 3. Adjustments are evidently required which interfere with established school procedures. As a result the tendency is towards lower efficiency. However, it is possible that good administration may overcome the retrograde tendency and, by encouraging coöperative planning and creative endeavor on the part of all concerned, bring about adjustments to the changed conditions which may ultimately result in school improvement and increased efficiency.

Nine principals specified economies in List 4 which had clearly resulted in the lowering of school efficiency. These economies amounted to approximately \$40,000 and consisted of departmental supplies, mimeograph service, health service, and salaries.

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In the case of salaries, reductions had been made to a point which indicated little recognition or appreciation on the part of the Board of Education of trained professional service, thereby causing unrest and low morale among the teachers and encouragement to leave the system. Economies with such attending effects could scarcely establish any claim to increased efficiency. They should be characterized as parsimonious and "penny-wise" savings without justification.

Some administrators may not be willing to accept the qualitative judgment of fellow administrators to the effect that economies, such as those reported in List 1, actually resulted in increased school efficiency. They may claim that the criteria for evaluating the economies were not adequate and what appeared to be increased efficiency was only another way of getting things done and that in reality the results were no better than before, if as good.

Similarly, they may claim that the economies specified in Lists 2, 3, and 4 were merely enforced retrenchments, which are entitled to be classified as present savings, but not as ultimate economies. They may consider that the effect of the savings cannot be evaluated at present and that they will result eventually in impaired efficiency and be regarded as false economies.

Whatever the validity of the claims just stated, the warning implied should be considered. Hasty qualitative judgments regarding the effects of economies on efficiency are hazardous. It does not follow that because

a saving is not attended by some noticeable impairment of efficiency the saving is a bona fide economy.

On the contrary, it may be argued that some economies of questionable current merit might result in administrative changes which would tend to offset and even compensate for the unfavorable present results of the economies in question. As a matter of fact the total effect, when evaluated fully, might indicate an ultimate increase in school efficiency.

The data considered show that economies have been effected and must continue to be made in the cost of secondary education, at least for the next school year. The question of importance in this discussion is the attitude of the principal towards the situation which obtains. If economies are regarded in the light of administrative retrenchments to be executed without due regard for attending results, the schools are almost certain to suffer losses in efficiency; but, if economies are considered as necessary savings to be effected through skillful administrative planning and reorganization, the adjustments involved may be utilized as incentives to improvement on the part of those concerned. Thus it is possible that budget savings and administrative improvements may be realized concomitantly. The serious consequences of retrenchments may, therefore, be partly averted, if not fully counterbalanced, through the acceptance by principals of the challenge of improvement and economy in secondary-school administration.

WHERE SHALL WE ECONOMIZE IN SECONDARY EDUCATION?

BANCROFT BEATLEY

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Dr. Beatley has indicated certain methods of economy that will affect disadvantageously the work of the secondary school, but points out as a partial offset factors that will contribute to the upholding of the profession of teaching.*

A. B. M.

IN THE present economic crisis, the principal of the secondary school finds himself in an anomalous position. On the one hand, widespread unemployment has restricted the opportunities for boys and girls who, in normal times, would leave school to go to work. These pupils are remaining in the secondary school with the expectation of graduation. Others, already graduates, are returning for postgraduate work in increasing numbers. On the other hand, the community has suffered a shrinkage in its economic capacity and is reducing its expenditures for education. Thus the principal is in a position where he must attempt to resolve the conflicting forces of increasing cost and declining income.

There is no magic by which the principal can solve this problem; yet in many schools there are possibilities of economy which can be realized with little or no sacrifice to educational standards. The situation demands that the principal exercise the greatest ingenuity in administering his school so as to use whatever money is available to the utmost advantage. In this article I propose to suggest certain ways by which this end may be achieved and the relative desirability of these methods. I shall not consider the wisdom or the necessity for reductions in school budgets, nor shall I discuss the social policy which forces the secondary school to become, for the time being, a haven of refuge for victims of the economic order. I am concerned only with those factors in the situation over which the principal may exercise a measure of control.¹

¹ For a vigorous and compelling treatment of the whole problem of economy, see the article by Professor Thomas H. Briggs entitled "Economies in Secondary Education," *School and Society*, January 14, 1933, pp. 41-49.

For convenience in presentation, the practices looking in the direction of economy will be grouped as follows: (1) those which involve no important educational loss; (2) those which may result in some sacrifice of educational standards; and (3) those which will seriously affect the work of the secondary school. Under each heading the practices are arranged so that the most desirable means are discussed first.

MEASURES OF ECONOMY INVOLVING NO IMPORTANT EDUCATIONAL LOSS

1. *Elimination of Small Classes.* One of the most obvious sources of waste in expenditures for secondary education is found in the perpetuation of small class groups. Even in large high schools, it is not uncommon to find a class of twelve to fifteen pupils in Latin III and another of eight to ten in Latin IV. Many instances of this sort are found in the advanced courses of the eleventh and twelfth grades. In the interest of economy, the principal should combine these small classes into a single class group and change the content of the course every other year.

In schools employing semiannual promotion, instances of needlessly small classes are especially likely to be found. In one such school, four class groups were maintained for pupils presumably at different stages of advancement in French: French IIIB, IIIA, IVB, and IVA. No one of these groups enrolled as many as fifteen pupils. The achievements of the pupils, as measured objectively, indicated that if all four classes had been combined into a single group, the range of individual differences within the resulting group would have exceeded only slightly the range in any one group considered separately.

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ly. The combining of the A and B groups in each year of French and the alternation of content by half years would have eliminated two class groups without important educational loss.

The abandonment of curriculum lines in forming class sections offers in certain schools a further opportunity for eliminating small classes. It is customary, in these schools, to create separate sections for college preparatory pupils, others for commercial pupils, and still others for pupils enrolled in industrial and homemaking curricula. In cases where there is a clear differentiation in content, such sectioning may perhaps be defended. In courses which are prescribed for purposes of social integration (e.g., civics), the practice tends to defeat the purpose. If curriculum lines are ignored in the forming of such sections, it is frequently possible to save one or more sections without increasing the size of any one section beyond that of many other class groups in the school.

In other instances, small classes appear to be necessitated by inadequate equipment. This is especially likely to be true in courses in industrial arts and home economics. The upper limit for class size in such work is frequently twenty pupils. This fact accounts for a substantial part of the higher per pupil costs of these elements in the program. Whatever may have been the justification for maintaining an emphasis on the development of skills in such courses in the past, such emphasis is hardly justified under present conditions. Unless pupils trained in industrial skills find opportunity to use them in the occupational world, their skills will not persist. If the effort in vocational education be redirected towards the development of technical intelligence, there is frequently the opportunity to eliminate small classes and at the same time develop the program of vocational education along more profitable lines.

2. *Reduction in Pupil Load.* Another less

obvious source of waste is found in the large number of pupils who are carrying more than the normal load of work. The commonly accepted standard for pupil load in the senior high school is twenty periods per week of prepared work; yet many schools permit and in some cases encourage large numbers of pupils to carry twenty-five or more periods of classwork. A program of studies from a senior high school in one of the suburbs of Boston will serve to illustrate the point. The college preparatory curriculum of this school requires in the eleventh-grade English, 4 periods; United States history, 5 periods; algebra, 4 periods; Latin, 5 periods; and French, 5 periods—a total of 23 periods of prescribed work. In addition, pupils may elect physics, 5 periods. This same school prescribes 24 periods of prepared work plus 4 periods of unprepared work in the twelfth grade of the secretarial curriculum and offers in addition electives in physics and French. Here is an example of a school which, in several of its curricula, prescribes more than a normal pupil load and which provides electives as well. A reduction in the number of courses to be taken or in the number of periods devoted to each course is clearly indicated not only as an economy measure but also in the interest of improved performance for the large majority of pupils.

In schools where failure rates are high, many pupils are permitted to increase the number of periods per week in order to maintain their class standing. Having proved that they could not carry four courses with success, these pupils attempt five. Other pupils regularly take five or six courses, believing that the chances are better of passing four out of five or six courses, than four out of four. The use of this factor of safety was so prevalent in a certain large high school in Pennsylvania that the *average* pupil load in "solid" studies was in excess of 25 periods (5 units). A reduction in the average pupil load from 25 to 22 periods in that school

would have enabled the school to save the salaries of four teachers.

One cause of excessive pupil load is found in the nature of the college preparatory curriculum. Schools frequently make demands within that curriculum which are in excess of the requirements of the particular college which the pupil plans to enter. The remedy obviously is to throw the program of studies into the form of constants and variables and to guide the pupil's choice of courses in the light of the admission requirements he needs to meet. Since almost no college requires more than 16 units of work in grades 9 to 12, the pupil need carry no more than the normal load each year.

In New England, some of the larger high schools advise certain pupils to devote five years to college preparation. This plan is of doubtful value at best. If a pupil cannot be prepared in normal times for the college of his choice, he should be advised against attempting admission to that institution. His presence in the school for the added year has the same effect upon expense as a 25 per cent increase in the load of four pupils for one year.

MEASURES OF ECONOMY WHICH MAY RESULT IN SOME SACRIFICE IN EDUCATIONAL EFFICIENCY

1. *Substantial Increase in Class Size.* The suggestion that small classes be eliminated in the interest of economy did not carry with it the implication that the general run of class groups should be enlarged, though the effect of this elimination would be to increase the average size of classes. Whether a substantial increase in the size of classes to 40 or 50 pupils would result in educational loss is a matter of conjecture. The scientific evidence on the question suggests that no loss would be entailed, yet most teachers doubt the validity of the findings.

Common practice sets 40 pupils as an average class size for elementary schools, 35 pu-

pils for junior high schools, and 30 pupils for senior high schools. If the pupil's capacity for self-direction is an appropriate criterion, it would seem more logical to reverse the order. The higher per pupil cost of senior-high-school education is due in part to a lower pupil-teacher ratio. If the economies suggested in the preceding section prove inadequate in meeting the economic problem, the practice of increasing the size of classes should be given a fair trial.

Many schools will be hampered in increasing the size of classes because of limitations imposed by the floor area of the classrooms. In some schools certainly, and perhaps in most, the seating capacity of the classrooms can be increased through the use of a few tablet armchairs. An increase of even five pupils in the capacity of each room would permit an increase of five in the average size of class groups and make possible a reduction of 8 or 10 per cent in the number of classes needed.

If the practice of increasing the size of class groups is adopted as an economy measure, the educational loss which may be entailed can be offset in some degree through a more adequate provision of such pupil aids as workbooks, study guides, reference books, and testing materials. The increased expense for these additional materials will be small in comparison with the savings in the item of salaries.

2. *Increase in the Number of Classes Per Teacher.* Two of the measures already considered depend for their economy on an increase in the number of pupils to be taught by a given teacher. The first measure—eliminating small classes—will increase the load of those who have carried a light load in the past. It will operate to bring about a more equable distribution of load. The second proposal—a substantial increase in the size of classes—will presumably increase the instructional load of all teachers.

Another measure, less desirable than either

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of the foregoing, seeks to increase the number of classes per day or per week to be taught by an individual teacher. A standard which has been widely accepted is one which defines a normal load as 25 classes per week. According to this standard, a teacher is expected, in addition to his classwork, to take charge of a homeroom, to direct some extra-curricular activity, to supervise a study hall, and to work on faculty committees. Adding to this normal load the burden of teaching an extra course may result in lowering the quality of the teacher's work and thus lower the standards of pupil performance. Yet I believe that many teachers can accept this added burden without great hardship and without observable consequences in the work of their pupils. Other teachers, especially those who are temperamentally less flexible, may have great difficulty in adjusting themselves to the new conditions of work. In these cases the consequent loss in effectiveness may prove to be out of all proportion to the magnitude of the additional work.

It is important to note that although increasing the size of classes and increasing the number of classes per teacher operate as measures of economy in much the same way, the latter practice makes greater demands on the teacher's energy. Let us assume that the normal instructional load per week in a given school is 25 classes of 25 pupils each—a total of 625 pupil periods per week. In the interest of economy, the load is to be increased to 750 pupil periods per week. Most teachers would certainly prefer 25 classes of 30 pupils each to 30 classes of 25 pupils each. Yet the money saving is the same by either method. Thus, of the two methods, each of which involves a possible sacrifice to educational standards, increasing the size of classes is clearly more desirable than adding to the number of class periods in the teacher's schedule.

3. *Elimination of Group Work in Certain Courses.* The number of class groups in

which instruction must be provided can be further reduced, without curtailing the educational offering, by the expedient of placing these courses on a completely individualized basis. The courses in solid geometry, trigonometry, and advanced algebra are cases in point. Small classes in these subjects cannot be eliminated by the method of combining grades and alternating content as these studies bear a sequential relation to the mathematics of the preceding grade. Pupils of sufficient competence to justify these elements in their program should in many instances be able to do the work without the constant direction of a teacher. In these cases, the school would need only to allow time in the pupil's schedule for this work, provide the necessary materials, encourage the pupil in his efforts, and serve as an examining body. Many small high schools have in a similar manner enriched their offerings through making available certain courses to be taken by correspondence study. The obvious disadvantage to the pupil of eliminating group work under a teacher in such courses is in some degree offset by the equally obvious advantage of independent work. Though the method has limited applicability as an economy measure, the principal should be aware of its possibilities.

MEASURES OF ECONOMY WHICH WILL SERIOUSLY AFFECT THE WORK OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

The proposals most frequently made for reducing secondary-school costs are the reduction of teachers' salaries and the curtailment of the educational offering. Since these means of economy have been discussed from many angles in the public press and in professional journals, a brief comment here will suffice.

1. *Reduction of Teachers' Salaries.* The chief merit of the proposal to reduce teachers' salaries is that it will save money. The

inevitable result of such a measure, if persistently applied, will be a lowering in the quality of the professional staff. This deplorable effect may perhaps be tempered if every effort is made to maintain the principle of the salary scale, to apply percentage reductions only as emergency measures, and to grant automatic increases before a percentage reduction is applied. Since the secondary-school principal usually exercises no direct control over salary levels, his function is to point out the baneful effects of salary reductions as compared with other methods of economy and to demonstrate the amounts of saving possible by various measures. It is probable that, in certain communities, salary reductions will be insisted upon however great may be the economies possible in other directions. The principal should not rest content with that decision until he has exhausted the opportunities for informing the public on the issue through the recognized channels.

2. Curtailment of the Educational Offering. There is a widespread belief on the part of the public that the secondary-school offering is overexpanded and that substantial economies are possible through the elimination of certain subject fields, especially practical arts, vocational education, fine arts, and music. The claim that economy is possible through the elimination of these subject fields is based upon the assumption that the unit cost of these fields is markedly higher than in the more traditional elements in the program. That assumption is well founded in many schools. Yet the higher cost of some of the newer elements of the program is due less to factors inherent in the teaching of these studies than to the prevalence of small class groups. It is obvious that the total cost of such studies cannot be saved through eliminating the subject fields from the offering as the pupils will have to be provided for whatever courses they take. The possibilities of saving lie in bringing the costs into line

with costs in other studies. The proposals already made for eliminating small classes and for redirecting effort in vocational fields will produce a saving almost as large as would be gained through the elimination of the field.

It may be noted in passing that in Massachusetts the effect of eliminating industrial education from the high school might be to increase rather than to reduce expenditure, as the community might then be required to pay in tuition to a vocational school, which the pupil is by law permitted to attend, an amount in excess of the added cost of providing industrial education for him in the local secondary school.

The move to curtail the educational offering as a means of economy is not only unsound economically; it involves a most serious sacrifice to educational progress. It is a move to return to a static academic offering that has limited possibilities for educating the heterogeneous groups now enrolled in the secondary school. I shall present here no detailed defense for the recent innovations in the curriculum. In some instances, we have probably not considered sufficiently the values of specific courses which we have introduced. I would maintain, however, that the changes which are being brought about in reorganizing the secondary-school curriculum are in the direction of a more vital program of secondary education. To eliminate these newer features from the offering in a futile effort to save money by this means will strike a blow at the heart of the modern secondary school. The principal of the secondary school must resist the move with all the vigor he possesses.

There is no question in my mind as to the relative merit of the proposals to reduce salaries or to curtail the educational offering. Although both methods represent reactionary moves in secondary education, the consequences of a moderate reduction in salaries are far less serious.

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IMPROVING THE QUALITY OF THE
TEACHING STAFF

If the proposals for economy which have been recommended in this paper have not already been practised to a maximum degree, the principal will find it possible either to meet increases in the pupil population without corresponding increases in teaching staff or to reduce the teaching staff, or both. If it is evident that a reduction in the number of teachers is possible, the principal has an excellent opportunity to strengthen his staff. In proportion as he can do so through the elimination of teachers least valuable to the system, he can in a measure compensate for such losses in educational efficiency as are entailed. The principal should guard against the tendency to follow the line of least re-

sistance by recommending the elimination of those teachers most recently appointed. While the tenure laws make it difficult in many States to drop a teacher who is superannuated though he be still far from the retirement age, it is usually possible to do so. The principal should accept the responsibility for recommending the elimination of inferior and mediocre teachers whatever their status with respect to tenure.

By a vigorous pruning of his staff at this time and by employing the more promising and more adequately prepared teachers, the principal can not only mitigate some of the undesirable effects of economy measures, but also contribute to the upbuilding of the profession of teaching.

WILL THE HIGH SCHOOLS SUFFER?

ARTHUR B. MOEHLMAN

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Dr. Moehlman counteracts the spirit of defeatism in education with a compelling idealism, supplemented by a realistic presentation of school achievements to a public eagerly awaiting enlightenment.*
A. B. M.

TO THOSE readers who believe in Santa Claus and "better and brighter" things, who like to be patted on the back, and who shy from realism, I do not recommend this article. There is little brightness in it. Neither is there any exaggeration. I have watched with great care and from many vantage points the tendencies of the past three years. I am going to talk about them to the profession plainly and without emotion, just as we might discuss any interesting laboratory phenomena.

The secondary schools will be more profoundly affected by the depression than any other units within our public-school systems, including universities. The full effects are just beginning to be felt. Unless arrested quickly, they will probably continue for at least five years. To the worried and nervous secondary-school principals and to hard-pressed superintendents statements of this character may not be comforting. It is better, however, for the profession to face the facts and then plan accordingly, than to sit with Pollyanna expectancy waiting for a miracle to occur.

The immediate reaction to these statements will be an almost unanimous desire for proof. Since the situation is operating within varied emotional patterns, characterized by social hysteria, it is not possible to present absolute proof but rather to make certain pointed deductions from a cross-section view of certain existing conditions and certain definitely recognizable tendencies.

In the first place, we face for the first time in the history of public education a unique situation. During previous major depressions the social set was favorable to educational effort. In the darkest days distinctly greater

effort was made by States and local districts to increase their sacrifice so that the children would not suffer. Today the conditions are reversed. Organized propaganda by special interested groups has created the most critical minority public opinion of educational effort since the initial organization of our public-school system. For ten years some of us have been preaching the necessity for the dissemination of factual material through which the public might be kept informed and the development of means whereby the people might be kept close to their schools. These preachings went, like thin voices in the desert, into wide and empty space. Superintendents and principals, playing with their new toys of recognition and acceptance by the industrial and fiscal leaders in the community, spent more of their time with class groups than with the people. As a result of their neglect, the schools at present are suffering more than they have suffered in any past period of depression.

So much for the general situation. Let us consider more specifically the position of secondary education. In the first place, secondary education occupies a psychological position in the educational scheme that makes it fairly vulnerable. In any rational spacing scheme there must be fewer and larger buildings than in the elementary school. On account of the nature of the curricular activities the high school requires a much more complicated physical structure with relatively expensive laboratories, shops, and other auxiliary facilities. Operating as they do to use the physical plant to greater advantage and so spaced that children cannot easily go home, it was essential for health reasons to develop cafeterias. To protect the students

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in their purchases many schools have also found it desirable to install book and supply stores so that essential textbooks might be purchased at more reasonable prices than under private control. Expensive and totally unessential stadiums, imitative of college practice, have also been placed where they catch the public eye constantly.

The first result is that the secondary school is so placed physically that the building is on or close to main arteries of travel. Its bigness cannot be hidden. The elementary building, as a rule, is located on secondary streets and is generally nowhere near as striking in appearance. The secondary school is engaged in "business," cafeteria and bookstore, which has ruined in many cases the small corner store that formerly made profit from the students. In good times, there was little said about it. In these bouncing days of "taking the government out of business," every lunchroom and every bookstore is under suspicion and severely criticized. Since the school did not inform parents of the advantages they were securing from good food, cheaply served, books and supplies, purchased practically at cost, the parents now join with the disgruntled shopkeeper to "bear down" on the high school. Communities have boasted more of what they paid for the buildings than what was taught in them. There has been too much imitation of the worst practices of commercial advertising.

The second group of facts is also a direct outgrowth of secondary-education trends and is the cause for much of the trouble. The secondary curriculum is much more varied and extensive than the elementary. The introduction of those courses, subjects, and activities which tend to broaden the instructional base to care for the diverse abilities now registered in secondary schools, has not been made sufficiently plain to the people. While these curricular expansions, together with the introduction of educational-psycho-

logical diagnosis and guidance, have been the bright educational-progress spot in the past decade, they have not been thoroughly explained to the public. Many of them were called "extras," even by the profession. What might the people be expected to think of them? The average parent does not realize their values to his children. The reversal of the traditional educational philosophy of caring for the one in university preparation, while the ninety and nine rolled through whatever holes the educational sieve provided, was never really told to and seriously impressed on the people. These movements were "frills and fads" according to popular opinion as well as that held by enterprising and "go-getting" chamber of commerce secretaries. While the "bigger and better" movements were on, they were used for their advertising value just as new industrial plants were. When depression settled down even on chambers of commerce, they became extravagant "frills and fads." The tremendous growth in secondary education, the essential curricular and organization expansions, together with the retention of traditional administrative organization copied from the higher institutions regardless of sense or need, led naturally to a large monetary outlay and a large per capita expense in contrast with elementary schools and with non-public schools operating on an entirely different basis. Gross statistical comparisons of this type, valid only for limited executive use, were furnished with enthusiasm to the people by superintendents and principals who should have known more about the law of the single variable. The people who were told took them to their bosoms and failed, during the depression, to cherish them.

The third set of factors influencing the social set of the secondary school is concerned with personnel. The first difficulty faced is that these schools are much further removed from the people than the elementary school and little serious and intelligent effort has

been made in the past to correct these tendencies. Our secondary personnel has been too much afflicted with the college concept and has brought to the popular campus too much of what one might term "academic snobbishness." There is a wide social gap, as a result, between the normal-trained elementary teacher and the secondary-college-degree teacher. I know this fact from my own years of teaching experience and from research made to analyze fundamental community conditions under which public-relations programs might be built. To the average secondary teacher the student is a potential college freshman. Further, our secondary personnel represents subject specialists with all of the weaknesses inherent in this set. For this condition our training institutions, not the teachers, are probably largely to blame. Only in isolated instances today do we have a preparation compatible with the social needs of public education. Too many of our secondary schools are loosely integrated in terms of personnel. There are too many intra-institutional conflicts and antipathies and there is too wide a gap between the elementary and secondary schools. Much of this condition is due to autocratic methods of administration and direct imitation of corporate management. The personnel are also too far removed from the people and are making entirely too little effort to overcome these difficulties and bring the institution back to the people in terms of understanding and sympathy.

The fourth set of factors is concerned with public-relations activities as actually presented to the public. Let us look at them from the public eye. Within the past decade external publicity has been greatly increased. Stimulated by emphasis on the essential public-relations aspects of popular education, much time and effort has been given to newspaper publicity. Emphasis has been placed on extracurricular activities that were showy and hence of "news" value. Dramatic presen-

tations, athletics, and specialized work have been emphasized, with pictures, out of all proportion to their value. Instead of studying the problem and attempting through intelligent interpretation to present the social value of the secondary school to the public by use of newspaper technique, the schools in general have succumbed to the popular concept of news and again followed blindly instead of leading. Public relations was appraised in column inches instead of attitudes developed. Pictures carry more lasting impressions than news stories. If you were a parent and judged the schools only through those activities presented publicly, what would be your picture of the institution?

While newspaper publicity was being developed home contacts were either neglected or carried on in a traditional manner, chiefly to protect the professional against parental reactions and anger, rather than based on a serious study of the psychological elements within the pattern and the building of a constructive technique. The secondary teacher is too much in the poor psychological position of "telling the parents." Instead, the attitude should be one of mutual coöperation and mutual understanding based on constructive social principles. I have yet to find the same degree of success in the secondary parent-teacher association that I find in the elementary organization. It is true that other conditions also enter into the program, but the secondary school cannot escape the implication that it has not done as much as possible with this instrument.

There is also ample evidence throughout the country as a whole that the secondary-school teacher is not very conscious of the general economic and social conditions as might be expected from individuals in this relatively important position. The answer lies to some extent in a faulty education of high specialization that gave no concept of the social order under which we live and in which we must operate. Intellectual inertia has fur-

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ther been rather successful in preventing motivation. As a result the teacher has been thinking chiefly in terms of herself as an individual in this crisis. What should be more natural! There can be no reasonable objection to this fact save that it is socially unintelligent and psychologically unfeasible at the present time. It may be said further that no amount of personal indignation or "emoing" is going to make this viewpoint any more intelligent under present conditions. For the past several years I have daily listened to the plaint: "Teachers' salaries must not be cut"; "Teachers must be exempt from these conditions"; "It is our first chance to gain, we must retain these advantages"; "The depression is interfering seriously with my plans." There are many variations of the theme, but these may suffice for illustrations. Even university faculty members, who might be expected to know better, have urged the elimination of every essential coordinate activity and a bad balancing of the budget just to maintain salaries. This short-sighted, selfish view will not make the people react sweetly.

With these "feelings" we are all in sympathy. I personally would have appreciated a continuation of conditions that provided a constant income. However, the present situation has made this impossible. Further, these oft expressed attitudes, rather naïve when we consider that more than twelve million are unemployed and even without subsistence wages, have given to our rather clever opponents through some of our national magazines an opportunity to make the typical teacher stand forth to what remains of our business and other leaders as a selfish "boob type." This creation is not going to be of much help to the profession.

So much for some of the underlying conditions. These conditions, some beyond our control and some developed by us through sheer timidity or intellectual inertia, have assisted greatly in establishing the current

negative trends towards secondary education that have gained so much headway. The schools have already suffered much, partly from economic conditions which cannot except any social activity, however worthwhile. As members of a highly interdependent social order we feel and react to the economic shocks that the United States and the world is reeling under. In addition, the schools have also suffered heavily beyond this point because the professional organization in times of peace and prosperity has failed in its professional obligation to remain close to the people and to keep them thoroughly informed.

How will these continuing trends affect secondary education? It seems that the following are reasonably possible.

1. There will be a large increase in the teacher work load. The day of the small class in public and private secondary schools, exclusive of endowed institutions, is rapidly disappearing. The class size will tend to approximate that in the elementary field.

2. The tendency towards salary reduction will probably continue for at least another year. At that point salaries may be stabilized, but in only a few situations will they tend to be at the 1929 purchasing level.

3. The graduated salary schedule, rather essential to the securing of professional stability and increasing efficiency, will probably be dormant as an agency in personnel administration for a number of years.

4. Sick-leave allowances and sabbaticals with pay will probably be eliminated for many years.

5. There will tend to be a diminishing of the differential between salaries paid to secondary-school administrators and those paid to classroom teachers. This tendency appears to be increasing.

6. There will be a much closer integration of elementary and secondary education to ensure the safety of secondary education. Whatever the purpose, the outcome is highly desirable.

7. Desirable movements towards the establishment of retirement systems must perforce await a brighter day now somewhat in the distance.

8. There is a strong drift towards the more

democratic organization of the profession within the schools, more of a tendency to recall and develop the earlier "colleague principle" instead of the imitative tendency towards the "management-labor concept" so strong in recent years.

9. There will be a careful appraisal of curricular activities and contractions will be made. Let us hope that they may be made in terms of current social needs rather than on conventional lines. Age must not be the sole criteria in appraisal.

10. There will be careful study of the internal organization of the secondary school with a trend towards greater flexibility and greater dynamic functionalization rather than the maintenance of traditional organization borrowed directly from higher institutions.

11. There will be an increased tendency to consider teaching as a job rather than in terms of service to the children and the State. The oversupply of teachers is resulting in social and political pressure that is forcing administrators in many instances to study the possibility of "divided jobs." Already we hear the beginnings of the slogan, "Two teachers for every class." This tendency in certain aspects has in it the most dangerous of all possibilities.

12. There is also discernible a definite swing among certain secondary groups towards the left in professional organization. These are selfish in their inception and practice and will not last, but will do considerable harm to the profession as a whole.

By this time the reader may say: "Isn't there any silver in the clouds?" There is only one hope that I can see. If the profession will unite and for the nonce lose itself and its petty academic idiosyncrasies and face the entire problem in a rational and realistic fashion, returning to the ideal of service, some checking may be possible. The only remedy lies in going directly to the people, to the parents of children, and telling the story of what the school means to them and to their children. Tell them that the line between a democratic manner of life and the ever growing tendencies among our indus-

trial leaders towards a fascistic autocracy is a thin one and that the democratic ideal can be held only by the public school continuing in a relatively free and unrestricted manner. Point out by actual figures that the amount of money they think of saving by curtailing schools is necessarily small in each case and that after the schools are curtailed or destroyed the economically able individual can pay for these services, but that they cannot. The children of the common man will suffer. Once destroyed, the activity for which parents have fought for the past hundred years will be long in rebuilding. Impress every parent with the individual value of the school to his children. Tell the parents that as teachers you are willing to carry on under whatever temporary sacrifice is necessary to maintain the front-line trench in the struggle for the continuation of the democratic system. Remember above all that the teachers' motto "I Serve" means not only in prosperity, but also in adversity. Above all, as teachers, we must remember that social safety lies in a permanently close relationship with the people, with the parents of children. To the continued education of parents we must devote our best efforts. In this way a dynamic public opinion may be created against which the efforts of the minority interest groups will not be long effective. Build up popular confidence in the government managed by their chosen representatives, ferret out the direction, control, and motivation of the "special" extralegal organizations now apparently in control of many local and State governments. The strong pressure of a united and dynamic public opinion may change somewhat the tendencies I have listed. If neglected, the drift may go even further, until only a vestige of our splendid secondary-school system remains. The time we have at our disposal is very brief.

THE HIGH SCHOOL OF THE FUTURE

L. L. FORSYTHE

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Dr. L. L. Forsythe forcefully indicates that the high school of the future will (1) accept responsibility for the education of pupils through the accepted high-school age and will take a large part coöperatively with State agencies in the education of adults as well, and (2) will provide as adequately as possible for the fullest development of all types of pupils under guidance to the extent appropriate for these years.* A. B. M.

TODAY the world seems to be coming to the end of an epoch. Blindly it gropes its way in an effort to find guideposts to a new land of promise.

The economist, the technologist, and the social expert generally agree that this is a transitional period which seeks the adaptation of new-found forces to universal human needs and aspirations. We are reminded that the extensive application of the products of mechanical genius to problems of production in all fields and to the needs of our everyday existence has brought social and economic problems so fundamental and far-reaching that we stagger under the load of necessary readjustments. The last forty years have seen greater changes than have ever before been wrought in human affairs in ten times as many years. The use of electricity for light and power, the telephone, the automobile, the airplane, talking motion pictures, the radio, the modern printing press, and modern industrial machinery—all these have come into almost universal use in these forty years. Small wonder that we find our agrarian civilization badly adapted to the changed conditions of such an industrialized and mechanized world.

In the face of our difficulties we seem to be at an impasse. Our leaders are hesitant and uncertain; they lack vision. There seems to be a dearth of clear and vigorous thinking. Courage and confidence are in eclipse; only hope remains. Yet it may be that the times are merely ripening for the appearance of that Moses who will lead us to deliverance. If so, we would merely be repeating the experience of humans in many earlier crises.

Along with other features of our social

structure men are questioning the adequacy of our schools and especially of our high schools. We cannot escape this critical scrutiny, nor should we seek to escape it. Rather, we should ensure that those who come to scrutinize should find us, as responsible representatives of the schools, already busied with a most searching appraisal of our aims and the methods by which we seek to realize them.

It is this conviction which has led to the preparation of this paper. In it the effort is made to set forth some of the aspects of education for adolescent youth which should still prevail, even though an extended depression consumes, as by fire, the fatuous unrealities of our present order of things.

The American high school is, in many respects, a haphazard, undisciplined, and ill-adapted growth. This is not to be wondered at. In its own right it is less than one hundred years old; in fact, as a definite and typical expression of the public will in the field of general education, its development dates from barely three fourths of a century ago. During the past forty years, especially during the last third of that period, its growth has been so rapid by accretions from one stratum of the social group after another that it is small wonder that the ill-assorted mass has not been thoroughly assimilated into an institution which was planned at an earlier time for a quite different sort of purpose from that which the high school is now called upon to serve. It must be borne in mind that educational experts of forty years ago, facing the problem of secondary education, saw but dimly the growth in numbers, variety of background, and diversity of purposes which

characterize the high-school population of today. While they looked upon the high school as serving a larger purpose than merely college preparation, they did not see this problem clearly enough to admit that any marked variation from established courses and practices was necessary for its solution. The Committee of Ten, voicing the prevailing opinion of that day, insisted that the training provided for college preparation was also best for the student who would not go on to college. To be sure a later group rebelled against this opinion and forced widespread modification both in theory and practice, but the rigid prescriptions for courses and curricula emanating from that famous committee has ever since dominated our high schools to an extent little realized by any but the most careful students of secondary education.

Although one cannot justly deny to those who have been responsible for secondary education a sincere and intelligent purpose to adapt high-school instruction to varying needs growing out of developing industry and unprecedented growth in the number and character of the student body, it still remains to be said that never so much as today have we been uncertain as to the effectiveness of what we are doing in our high schools in view of changes which inevitably have come or are coming in the thinking and living of our people. The one thing that we can look forward to, so it seems, is change; yet our educational procedures are tuned to the purpose of maintaining the status quo. It seems certain, therefore, that these years of depression will drive us to study in a new way and with renewed energy the problems of our craft. Probably no one would be so rash as to venture to predict the details of the reforms to be effected, yet it seems quite fitting to speculate on some of the characteristics of the new high school which will emerge from this critical process.

I. The high school will accept responsibility

for the education of all boys and girls through the accepted high-school age and will take a large part coöperatively with State agencies in the education of adults as well. No one can reasonably expect that in the years ahead the boys and girls under eighteen will be welcome in the ranks of the employed. In view of the limited need for labor in a highly developed machine age, opportunities for work will be either sharply competitive or carefully regulated. But in either case there can be little doubt that events will decree that adolescent youth, if physically and mentally competent, shall remain in school until eighteen years of age rather than enter into competition with adult workers.

As to the second group mentioned above, the adult group, it seems inevitable that increased leisure will lead many of them back to the school where opportunities for further satisfaction of recreational, civic, cultural, and vocational interests will be afforded. Use will be made of talking motion pictures and the radio—probably with television—to bring to the remotest centers the advanced thinking of our civic and cultural leaders; classic plays and the best of music will be presented; demonstrations in science will be depicted; and a score of uses devised of which we have no thought today.

Some will object that a scheme of education for all adolescents and so many adults is prohibitive because of cost. But it is not to be supposed that the last word has been said either with reference to instructional economies or the ability of our people to support such enterprises. As a matter of fact a very good case could be made for the contention that the public is already paying for the opportunities here described, but is handing over its money to commercial interests that have little concern for elevating the public taste or conserving public morals.

II. The new high school will provide as adequately as possible for the fullest devel-

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opment of all types of pupils *under guidance* to the extent appropriate for these years.

This is a large order. It is an ideal to which we are now giving little more than lip service. We have too often complacently permitted ourselves and our public to be deceived; yet what thoughtful principal can sincerely maintain that either his most academic-minded group or his least intellectual group—to take only two—are getting an opportunity for the fullest possible development? However well the elementary school may be meeting this problem, certainly the junior and senior high schools are far from its solution. In most high schools the highly capable student is permitted to drift along meeting average requirements in an indifferent way, while the dull student is overwhelmed by requirements far beyond his powers. Neither is continually faced with those challenging tasks just beyond the grasp and yet not out of reach by which alone the fullest development is possible.

Even where stimulating courses have been provided for the academic group who have professional aspirations, what principal has not seen his efforts largely neutralized by the demand of the economically competent but intellectually unfit that they be permitted to enter such courses because they also aspire to enter college and to prepare for the professions? This and other equally baffling situations suggest that problems of guidance must loom large in any adequate solution of the general problem of adapting instructional activities to all types of minds and to all sorts of vocational aspirations.

Not the least of these problems will be met in making parents accept the almost inevitable decision that their children are not fitted for professional pursuits and should therefore avoid the highly academic courses. Equally difficult will be the necessity of making all groups look with consideration and approval on all kinds of effort and real accomplishment regardless of the amount of

academic learning mixed up with the activity. The notion now infiltrating into educational thinking that the academic type of student is only one of many types worthy of development in modern society promises to gain increasing acceptance in connection with this objective. But it will take time and careful nurture to bring it to full fruitage. The thinking of the older generation of both teachers and parents must be revolutionized. However, in the not too distant days, one may hope that all boys and girls who do not have the special qualifications for highly intellectual pursuits will be happy in our high schools acquiring that general toning up of mind, body, and personality which will fit them for a more useful place in coöperative society.

Just here arises a pertinent question: What of vocational education? The answer is not clear, but apparently the objective of some years ago—a job for every aspiring boy and girl and every one fitted to his job—is impossible of continued realization. There will be definite preparation for some, but universal vocational training—steel-banded and water-tight—seems impossible of realization. The accepted ideal for most of our students in these days is embraced by the phrase, "Education for Adaptation." Just what that may mean is for the future to determine.

III. The new high school will endeavor to interpret modern culture even more fully and effectively than at present. It will recognize that, in these days of increasing leisure, literature, music, and the arts are of primary importance in the lives of all. But in the presentation of these cultural elements new methods will predominate. As in adult education so also in our day schools, talking pictures, the radio with television, and creative groups within the school and the community will be used in cultural interpretations to an extent hardly dreamed of today. It is my belief that the day is almost upon us when at a given hour of each day, colleges, universi-

ties, State and national departments of education, and private educational foundations will offer varied programs presenting the finest music convincingly interpreted, the most suitable of plays faultlessly acted, or the problems of government most clearly set forth. It will be our place in program making to leave that period free for these and other group experiences which give life new meaning and zest. During such an hour, for example, classes which have been studying *Macbeth* as a part of a drama course will come together to see that wonderful drama interpreted by the foremost actors of the day as presented by the use of motion pictures or by television; or a group of physics classes will convene to witness a pertinent demonstration, accompanied by a lecture, of some experiment performed by a Millikan or an Einstein in a laboratory in far-away California. Or again, in this special hour a group of local players will present from the stage a masterpiece of some modern dramatist. Indeed, it may not be too much to hope that a master teacher in the field of art may conduct groups of art students, by means of television, through the halls of the Metropolitan Museum, discoursing the while by radio on the matchless works of art to be found there, while the interested groups all over the land gaze in admiration upon reproductions flashed on the screen before them. Much stranger developments have already come to us.

IV. The new high school will give increasing opportunity for creative expression in literature and art, music and dramatics, and in the practical arts. The school will develop in its community aspects and out of such development will come the need for contributions along all of these lines. The school paper, dramatic clubs, musical organizations, creative-writing groups, and art classes will furnish the occasion and the means for individuals to contribute in the community interest. To be sure the best schools today are

appealing to this ideal as a stimulating and cohesive principle, yet few have realized its full value and most schools have used it hardly at all.

The fine thing about it is that if carried to its logical limits, this development will bring about the organization of tremendously varied interest groups, at the same time justifying their existence and giving point to their activities. A printing department may be revolutionized in spirit by being recognized as making an indispensable contribution to the life of the school community, or a dramatics group may be given new life and purpose by devoting its energies to the production of a play or a pageant which the school community needs to have produced. If these things are so, can we not find here the means of making more and yet more of even our classroom-activities center in the school community interest?

V. While the new high school will foster appreciation of and contribution to our cultural heritage, it will be even more concerned than now to give thorough and vital instruction in all departments of human knowledge that come within its scope. The merely interesting and intriguing elements will be rejected as will the merely traditional. Fundamental subject matter in languages, mathematics, science, and history, and other social studies will be increasingly interpreted in relation to the life of today, but without sacrifice in clarity, orderly organization, and thoroughness. Indeed subject matter, pertinent to modern needs, will be so presented as to emphasize the logical and analytical approach. The tendency to pauperize our students by assuming that they cannot or will not think through difficult problems will give way to the practice of constantly challenging their fullest powers and cultivating their devotion to the search for truth. It will be recognized that fusion courses tend to confusion and that "problems" which demand from the immature learner judgments in the fields of

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human research little understood by him are apt to be worse than useless. And so, with the realization that it is not possible to settle all the problems of the universe during the years of adolescence, it will become respectable again to isolate bits of human knowledge and experience and to try to see the logical relationships that exist therein. To some this may seem the veriest heresy, but I can see no other course to redeem us from the shallow superficiality of much of our present teaching.

VI. In the new high school the central core of interest and study will be the social studies. The school will take upon itself the responsibility, as an agency of organized society, (1) of interpreting, through historical study, the processes by which men and women have gradually acquired control over and, to an increasing extent, the services of the resources which everywhere abundantly surround them; (2) of interpreting the processes by which man has persistently wrested from the unwilling hands of privilege the blessings of free thought and free action, looking always to an ultimate freedom limited only by the common interest; (3) of showing how great forward advances towards personal freedom or the common good, made at tremendous cost by one generation, have often been lost by a succeeding generation, grown careless and self-centered, and how the old struggle in a somewhat different form must be carried on again and again, gradually setting man nearer and nearer to his ultimate goal; (4) of studying the varied economic, social, and political organizations, both historical and contemporary, by which men have sought to secure for themselves the blessings of life, always keeping in mind comparisons both in form and accomplishment with our own political, economic, and social organizations; (5) of studying frankly and critically the social, economic, and political institutions of our own locality, State, and country with spe-

cial reference to means by which we may more certainly realize our ideals of freedom and coöperative living; (6) of ensuring a knowledge of procedures for the study of public problems with special reference to the proper appraisal of sources of information and opinion; (7) of providing an introduction to the major social and economic problems of our day, not with the idea of arriving at solutions, but with the purpose of indicating how perplexing and serious they are and how necessary are solutions based on intelligence and fair play rather than on prejudice and self-interest.

With such objectives history will be redeemed from the possibility of becoming a bare chronicle of unimportant facts or a romantic narrative of unrealities. From its vast storehouse will be chosen those facts, incidents, and movements which face towards our own day, not with the idea of being unfaithful to the past, but with the purpose of being profitable to the present. For, considering the interests of the masses in our high schools, we must focus our thought on the intelligent appraisal of our own times with the purpose of making the lot of all men progressively more hopeful and happy.

With such objectives we cannot avoid the disturbing truths of economic, social, and political realities. Teachers are constantly warned to avoid controversial subjects in the classroom. Such advice always originates in fear of organized groups within the community. If such a policy must be accepted, let the yielding be only under protest and with a militant insistence that the ultimate public interest demands the frank discussion of public problems. But let the schools always be above partisan propaganda. Only thus can we hope to deserve the right to discuss disturbing problems.

The high schools of most communities have reason to be thankful that the tolerance of the public for frank discussion of controversial issues has apparently been set far

forward in these recent months. People have come to realize something of the evident impotence and inadequacy of the old political, economic, and social formulas in the face of radically changing conditions. And with this realization has come a willingness to consider new ideas which at one time would have been dismissed with a shrug as "socialistic" or "communistic."

VII. There will be adequate provision for every adolescent to enjoy a full, free, wholesome physical development in so far as such an objective can be attained in the case of each individual.

Such a plan will include: (a) individual physical and health counseling, (b) medical advice and, when necessary, medical and dental service, (c) opportunity for recreational play at school, (d) encouragement to participate in some carry-over game for later life, (e) the curtailment or abandonment, if necessary, of school teams to make available facilities that may be needed in the interest of the larger number.

There are still those who look upon health education, physical education, and recreational opportunities as frills; but there is abundant evidence that all intelligent communities appreciate that in days like these they are absolute necessities; and while in some localities they may receive a temporary setback, the soundness of their claim to a place in any educational scheme will ensure them ultimately a place of permanence.

VIII. Groups of both boys and girls, sometimes together, sometimes separately, will discuss with specially chosen teachers problems relating to the personal and social aspects of life, such as: (a) fundamentals of health knowledge, (b) problems of personal economics, including those relating to getting a start in earning a living, savings, types of investments for small savings, etc., (c) problems of relations between the sexes, including casual relations, courtship, marriage, and family responsibilities, (d) the

importance of industry and honesty and other personal qualities in economic relations, (e) various ethical problems arising in school and other life situations.

The above list is meant to be merely suggestive. It should, however, be sufficient to make it apparent that the high schools are neglecting to function, except incidentally and indirectly, in face of one of the greatest needs which has confronted any people. With the weakening of time-honored sanctions in our modern life, we must find the means of referring such problems as I have indicated to the basic intelligence and ethical judgment of young people. To develop a group of teachers who have the knowledge, judgment, and personality to discuss such questions effectively with young people is one of the outstanding challenges to our teacher-training institutions. As soon as school administrators and boards of education have reason to hope that this need can be met, there will be a keen demand for capable counselors in this fundamental field.

IX. The new high school will have the liveliest regard for the personalities of all its students. To this end it will discourage distinctions based on tests of purely academic ability, give honor to all types of attainment valuable in the school community, minimize all economic and social distinctions, and, as far as possible, put emphasis on progress, improvement, and effort rather than on absolute attainment. This last mentioned ideal can be realized only when college recommendation is thoroughly divorced from approval for graduation, not only as a fact in the administration of the school, but also in the mind of the public.

Some teachers who have traditionally regarded attendance at high schools as the peculiar privilege of the gifted have great difficulty in accepting lowered standards as a basis of graduation. But the fact is that a school supported by general taxation cannot be properly regarded as the servant of merely

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the intellectually minded. All, equally, have their rights and among those rights is the privilege and satisfaction of graduation if their efforts have been marked by fidelity of purpose and attainment commensurate with ability. There is no danger of undermining general morale and standards if we frankly acknowledge the bases on which graduation is awarded. In fact standards might well be raised; for under a system which required attainments corresponding to ability, some who now dawdle through high school to their everlasting hurt would be required to extend themselves as a prerequisite for graduation.

X. The new high school will encourage a type of teaching which sets well-defined tasks within the needs and interests of young people, holds them to their proper part in relation to those tasks, puts emphasis on the use of the knowledge acquired in relation to the problems of life now encountered or to be encountered later, and puts a premium on the acquisition of habits of painstaking work and clear thinking.

To many this may be objectionable as savoring too much of discipline. But if my observations count for anything there is nothing that our young people need more urgently than the discipline of accepting responsibility for performance of assigned tasks. I do not plead for mere subservience. I would expect teacher and student to come into accord as to the reasonableness and value of the tasks to be assumed and I would hope that gradually the student would assume full responsibility for tasks to be completed; for in the end it is only self-discipline that counts.

Whatever may be thought of the ade-

quacy of the features of the new high school here set forth, any one must realize something of the difficulties in the way of realizing these ideals. Facilities are inadequate, able teachers are too few, and many who are otherwise capable refuse to see that new times and new conditions demand new ways. Again, accrediting agencies are only slowly responding to the demand for modified entrance requirements. The depression has but increased the natural difficulties. And so a willing but bewildered and overworked leadership faces the problems of secondary education with uncertainty and discouragement and probable failure, unless new methods can be devised to meet the unusual conditions of a depression period.

It seems to me that the most helpful suggestion yet made comes from the resourceful thinking of Dr. Thomas H. Briggs who proposes the creation of full-time State or national commissions to work out new curriculum procedures. He recognizes that local school systems cannot adequately meet the expense of such undertakings even if they were able to supply competent teachers to develop new curriculum materials. But while local boards cannot afford to finance curriculum revision, it is altogether probable that they would be willing to cooperate both in the general expense and in providing cooperative assistance by their teachers. Thus thorough, thoughtful, vital modern curricula may be provided with a measure of cooperative effort which will ensure widespread approval and general acceptance. If the necessities of a period of depression bring us to assume such enterprises together, then it will prove to be a blessing in disguise.

INTERPRETING THE SCHOOL TO THE PUBLIC

L. N. MORRISSETT

EDITOR'S NOTE: *This is an excellent article and it has practical value. Mr. Morrisett is principal of the Classen High School, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma.* P. S. M.

INSTITUTIONS of government, including the public schools in a democracy, are controlled and limited by the knowledge, thinking, judgment, and emotional attitudes of the average or middle group of our citizens. I mean to say that something like fifteen per cent of our most intelligent, best informed citizens are striving towards the ideal in public education as well as in other government agencies—but at the other extreme there is a group of poorly informed citizens whose thinking, attitudes, and votes somewhat counterbalance efforts and expended energies of the most forward-looking and enterprising friends of education. This condition places the future of democratic education in the hands of the large group who in the end determine and define the levels of education as well as furnish its support. Thus it is clear and certain that in our several communities the processes and results of our secondary schools must sympathetically permeate the thinking of the masses of our people if we are to progress. The secondary school must be realized as the pupil's school—a product of democracy. At present this is more nearly true of the junior than the senior high school because the junior high schools have been more alert, quicker to sense and seize their professional obligations and opportunities relative to interpreting their schools to the public.

Do we agree with Albert S. Cook in his oft quoted, significant, and pragmatic statement in which he says, "To see to it that the general public is at all times informed of the purposes, activities, and accomplishments of the public schools is both a professional opportunity and a professional obligation"? If, I say, we accept this thesis, can we expect, can we anticipate a sympathetic

understanding of our work and needs on the part of the public? I believe educational experience is replete with examples which clearly demonstrate that whenever and wherever Commissioner Cook's philosophy is put into full and free practice, ill-advised questions and attitudes on the part of patrons—also wondering, questioning, nonunderstanding, inquisitively critical complexes, are supplanted by healthy, vigorous, understanding, constructive, coöperative attitudes which result in happiness, harmony, sustained progress, and growth.

Enough for the philosophy underlying the principle that it is our duty to interpret our schools to the public. Let us view the problem from four lookouts; first, what does the public want to know about our schools, their purposes, and activities; second, what do we want the public to know about our schools, their purposes and activities; third, what purposes and activities are receiving the major emphasis in our present educational publicity; and fourth, what are the methods, avenues, and ways of interpreting secondary schools to the public?

What does the public want to know about our schools? One junior-high-school principal in Oklahoma City submitted the following question to one hundred patrons of his school (names selected at random). "What one question concerning this school and its work, as it relates to your child, is uppermost in your mind?" The following ten answers were selected for this paper from the eighty-seven replies. In each case the answer is quoted without any change of meaning (English sometimes needed attention).

Will this kind of school work fit (meaning equip) my boy for active competition in our business life as a wage earner?

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Will this school have a decided influence for good upon the formation of his character?

Will this school better prepare my daughter to live in our complex social life and to pursue advanced study? If so, how?

The next question is from a lawyer and former judge and is given verbatim.

Will my children have a higher regard for the ideals of peace, citizenship, parenthood, liberty under the law, and a more noble and wholesome attitude towards their fellows because they have spent three years in your school?

In return for my support of the school, just what am I getting in return?

What do you mean by such terms as BP's, IQ's, diagnostic tests, classification program, accelerated groups, retarded groups, and remedial work? Just how do these affect my two boys and their progress?

Why the constant change and added cost of textbooks?

What is your school doing to teach the dignity of labor, especially what is known as common labor?

If nine months of school are good why would not eleven or twelve be better? Why let the building stand idle and the teachers and pupils take a vacation for three months when the teachers need more pay and the children need more schooling.

Such questions as these in the minds of our patrons surely justify Glenn Frank in raising the recruiting trumpet for the interpreters of secondary education.

Mr. Earl Sifert while principal of a junior high school in Minneapolis prepared a questionnaire for his patrons on the subject, "What do parents want to know about public schools?" This questionnaire contained forty graphic, definite, well-stated questions which were given to one thousand patrons with the following instructions (printed in part):

Will you please check (x) the items in which you are most interested; that is, those items about which you would like to know more. In doing so please check without any particular consideration of the grade in which your boy or girl is now enrolled. Your coöperation will be heartily appreciated. Please check only the items about which you desire information, and check any number, as you see fit.

Eight hundred eleven replies were returned to this questionnaire. In order of rank and with frequency the ten items of most interest were:

Rank	Frequency
1st What parents can do to promote pupil accomplishment	318
2d How the school guides a child in finding his life's work and in preparing for it; that is, vocational and educational guidance	283
3d What aptitude tests tell about the special abilities of children	265
4th Information the school can give you regarding your child	261
5th Provisions for character training	229
6th Qualities of a desirable pupil	210
7th The how, when, and why of home study	205
8th How to prepare for college entrance ..	192
9th Use and misuse of mental tests	188
10th How courses of study are determined	176

The following three items were of least interest to those replying:

38th School building specifications—present trend in school building	27
39th What happens in the kindergarten	20
40th The work of the primary grades	17

The last two frequencies might well be expected as the replies were from junior-high-school patrons.

The management of the *Oklahoma News* of Oklahoma City has just recently invited our profession of that city to express its philosophy—to present its views through its columns on a number of questions. The following fifteen were presented by the paper as being subjects of interest to the readers of this large afternoon paper. One of the editors addressed our superintendent.

Here are several questions which would interest a majority of parents, I think, and at the same time should induce principals to develop interesting similar points that are aside from the routine of teaching and learning. Our aim in this series is to strike at angles of education rather than at the front, or ordinary parts of it. These questions are incomplete, and intentionally only suggestive, but I think educators of such long experience as your principals will have definite opinions on them:

Who learns the faster, boy or girl? Why?

Is it really true that athletes are dumb?

What about beauty? Are handsome boys and beautiful girls more intelligent than those not so good looking?

Isn't physical development along the lines of beauty more apt to be accompanied by intelligence?

If the "handsome" are more intelligent, does it follow they make better grades?

What do schools do towards instilling honesty in students and emphasizing the moral aspects of life?

What could be done?

Is it futile to teach these things, or are they a function of public education? Schools teach leadership, but do they teach modesty?

Schools teach the grip of the hand, the look in the eye, the fundamentals of Babbitttry, but do they teach gentleness, dignity, quiet poise, and other fundamentals of refinement?

Isn't it absolutely unfair to make potential Babbitts of children?

Is it the school's primary purpose to make material success easy?

Is there danger that schools will drift too far away from cultural education?

Should a principal presume to decide a pupil's career? Should a parent?

Is any sort of vocational advice dangerous?

What attracts men to the teaching profession?

Does student self-government build character, or does it destroy discipline and self-restraint?

What independent action may a principal take to aid students?

How does the wealth of a student's parents affect his position in school life? In the classroom? In the corridor?

Speaking in masses, which is likely to be the best student: the wealthy, the one in moderate circumstances, or the poor?

If a youth intends to be a professional man, what one subject should he pursue most ardently in high school?

If a youth intends to be a business man, what one subject should be his most dependable aid in college or in later life?

If a girl were to be the wife of a business man, what one subject would you urge her to be sure to take? If she were to marry a professional man, what one subject would help her best to be an interesting wife?

If she intends to remain unmarried past the time when it would be fair to depend on her parents for support, what one subject would help a girl most in the business world?

Why should a wife be educated?

Should she be educated to the same degree as her husband?

Should she have had more schooling than he, or would it be more conducive to happiness for her to have had less?

Along what lines should a wife be educated to be most interesting and attractive?

What *three* high-school subjects, aside from those which would aid material success, are most important in developing a gentle, informed background for home, club, social, civic, and "inner-man" purpose?

These are only ideas I jotted down as being along the line I had in mind.

Examination and analysis of the questions of parents, and the items, suggested for publicity by the press and secondary-school principals, disclose that the chief interest of all may be classified under the following heads:

What is the school doing to my child?

Character training and development

The school as an aid in developing personality and qualities of good citizenship

Social training

Economic values of high-school training

Methods and organization

Guidance, leadership, and importance of specific subjects

You no doubt will observe that football and other sports, as such, extracurricular activities, by name, teachers and school officials, boards of education, administration, business management and finance have not been suggested as meriting either publicity or interest. May I ask in all seriousness if these facts do not warrant a close scrutiny of our publicity programs and methods? Frankly, have we adequately interpreted the schools to the public?

Editor and Publisher is the authority for the statement that seventy-five per cent of all school-news space is given to athletics and sports.

The *Oklahoma City Times* assigns one of its premier reporters to the gathering of school news. This large afternoon daily gives one entire page each Friday to educational publicity under the headline "The Times

INTERPRETING THE SCHOOL TO THE PUBLIC

Friday Page of School News." This page carries pictures, announcements, feature stories, and topics intended to interpret the schools to the public. This page over a period of four school months carried on the average thirty-six articles and four cuts of varying size each week.

We would not have you believe that we consider the newspaper as the only avenue through which schools may be properly interpreted. Indeed not! However, we would emphasize the importance, willingness, and desirability of the press as a means of educational publicity. Other avenues of instruments available may be summarized as follows:

1. *Official publications:* Reports (annual, biennial, special); bulletins; handbooks, directories, manuals; surveys; monographs, catalogues.

2. *Newspapers:* News articles; feature articles; editorials; display advertisements; illustrations, pictures.

3. *Student publications:* School newspapers; school magazines; school annuals; school handbooks.

4. *Other types:* Posters; teachers; public programs; visitors' day; American education-week programs; exhibits both at and away from school; parent-teacher association; father-son, mother-daughter banquets and mixers; commencement; movies, slides; billboards; street-car signs; banners; athletic, literary, and forensic contests; mimeographed letters to parents; pupil reports; alumni organizations; radio; demonstrations of school work by pupils, given at chambers of commerce, civic clubs and churches; open house; back-to-youth programs given in the evening with parents following their children's daily program.

Here is an actual program of a back-to-youth night attended and enjoyed by more than fifteen hundred parents and friends of the school.

BACK-TO-YOUTH NIGHT

For Patrons and Friends of
Roosevelt Junior High

Wednesday Evening, November 9, 1930

Cafeteria Service 6 o'clock

Come and Have Your Evening Meal With Us
(Services, food, and prices exactly as offered our students daily)

COME AND SEE

Assembly Program in Auditorium
(After classes—9.15)

Meet in auditorium for instructions at 7.30

CLASS SCHEDULE

(Classes begin at 7.45)

Student
(Last name first)

Locker No.Class

Class periods ten minutes; five minutes for passage.

Period	Subject	Teacher	Room
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1
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2
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3
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4
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5
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6
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Assembly Auditorium

I accept this invitation to visit Roosevelt Junior High Wednesday evening, November 9, and expect to eat dinner in the cafeteria at o'clock.

(Signed)

..... Father

..... Mother

..... Friend

From this list three have been selected as especially deserving mention and development: the pupil, the radio, and the parent-teacher association.

Some one has said "Have a good school and the public will know it." Perhaps so, but "knowing it" is not synonymous with understanding. There is still room for interpreting. The alert, keen, interested pupil of a good school will in turn share his understanding and enthusiasm with his parents and friends in a most effective way. We cannot afford to overlook the pupils who are in our

schools as the most desirable avenues of interpretation.

The radio has annihilated distance, ushered in a new and effective mode of advertising, and presented to the educator the opportunity of interpreting his school, its purposes and its activities to the entire community at one time under the most desirable conditions. Can you imagine a more ideal situation for informing the public about the schools than to have the family at home around the fireside listening to a program from the school produced by children with father and mother learning and understanding while their emotional attitudes are being toned by their own children's enthusiasms and suggestions?

The National Congress of Parents and Teachers offers one of our best avenues of contact, as well as one of our best methods of approach. This devoted organization stands ready and willing to foster the ideal of intelligent understanding of the school and its work on the part of the public (the owners of the school).

Certainly it must follow in a democracy that citizens who have been blessed with the privileges and responsibilities of parenthood and who acknowledge, accept, and cherish such noble aspirations and worthy ideals, will eminently satisfy the public's mind concerning our school if given a full understanding of the practical aims and workings of the school.

I submit that, where needed, programs for our parent-teacher associations should be of a revealing nature, and should be of such an interpretive character as will correctly inform its members exactly what the school is doing for its pupils—a set of programs that will "sell" the school, its methods and purposes; a set of programs that will enable its members to tell their neighbors the *why* of physical training, the assembly period, the diagnostic tests in English, or the special room for retarded children.

In other words, I propose a set of programs to open the school's inner workings and methods, to brush aside pedagogical mysteries and psychological phrases, and show the patrons of our school exactly what their boys and girls are doing as well as what is being done to them; and further to tell them in common, plain, everyday language our exact purposes and aims.

Here are two programs, one from the junior- and the other from the senior-high-school field which are characteristic of the type under discussion:

PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATION PROGRAM

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

- I. Introduction of program by head of the mathematics department who will briefly state
 1. General aims of the mathematics offered in junior high school (grades seven to nine)
 2. Courses offered as arithmetic, general mathematics, industrial arithmetic, and algebra
 3. Scope and aims of each course
- II. Explanations of school's standing and accomplishments in mathematics—as shown by grade-level achievements as compared to national norms; display and explanation of exhibits; also achievement charts showing progress within the school over a given period of time—by a teacher
- III. Junior-high-school arithmetic from an eighth-grade pupil's viewpoint
 1. Aims and purposes
 2. How it functions
 3. What we learn
 4. Our project
- IV. A twenty-five minute lesson in eighth-grade mathematics
 1. This lesson from this day's program—an actual classroom recitation, developing and bringing out
 - a) Purposes of the recitation unit—with acceptance of same by class
 - b) Method—(socialized recitation)
 - c) Emphasis on the objectives
 - d) Drill
 - e) Relation and practical application
 - f) Summary
- V. Round-table discussion; leaders: head of mathematics department and a patron

INTERPRETING THE SCHOOL TO THE PUBLIC

1. An honest effort to relate the mathematics taught in school to the mathematics used in the life of the community
2. What parents expect from the mathematics department
3. Discussion of method used
4. Discussion of invited questions

PROGRAM FOR PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATION

PREPARED BY THE ENGLISH DEPARTMENT

Aim of program: To give parents a bird's eye view of what our English department seeks to accomplish, with some illustrations of the product.

- I. Introduction—general aims and personnel of the department—director of English
- II. The problem of reading—results of a scientific investigation into the reading of high-school pupils with an explanation of what our department is doing to raise the standard and introduce pupils to better literature—by a teacher
- III. Linking our department with the outside world—discussion and display of pupil's anthologies, notebooks, scrapbooks, and various projects with which we try to make English more vital and by means of which we stress its relationship with life—by a teacher

IV. Literature and ideals of youth—a pupil

A procedure of this type and character will, I believe, be an effective avenue of constructive publicity for our schools. Each of these programs should be strictly of the revealing type. Each program should have certain characteristics, as:

1. The setting forth of actual classroom or laboratory work.
2. The giving of an actual cross-section of students and work.
3. The presentation under classroom conditions and regulations—as to dress, uniform, number, materials used, and procedure.
4. The introduction of program by the teacher in immediate charge.
5. Pupil participation in the program.
6. The showing of aims, purposes, methods, comparisons, achievements, and special interests.
7. The emphasizing of the pupil's viewpoint.
8. Concluding each program there should be two features: first, an attempt to show why each subject is taught, how it functions in life, and how it is linked with the community; and, second, a round-table discussion, conducted by the principal or his representative.

THE CHANGING SECONDARY SCHOOL

JULIAN CARTER ALDRICH

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mr. Aldrich presents some interesting facts concerning changes in the personnel of three high schools.* F. E. L.

IT IS WELL known that our high schools have increased in size more rapidly than the communities in which they are located. It is generally assumed that this growth is accompanied by a change in the secondary-school population. So far, no studies have been published to prove or disprove this fact. Our guess is that our schools are less selective than they were five years ago, although we know that some school populations have changed more than others. The author is able to make a comparison of three high schools over a five-year period because he conducted a social survey of three rather different communities five years ago.

In the autumn of 1926 the author made a study of a number of factors in three St. Louis County high schools, Webster Groves, Kirkwood, and Wellston. Webster Groves and Kirkwood are alike in their white population, 90.7 per cent of the families in the former and 91.5 per cent of the families in the latter being native white according to the 1930 census.¹ There is a difference in the percentage of home ownership and radios in the homes; 77.6 per cent of the families in Webster Groves live in owned homes, while only 67.8 per cent of the families in Kirkwood do so. In Webster Groves 71.2 per cent of the families have radios, as compared with 58.9 per cent of those in Kirkwood. One factor which does not show itself in these reports is that Kirkwood has more farms near it from which it draws than do the other two schools. It is regretted that the census figures for Wellston are not available. It, however, is a community at the west of St. Louis, and is made up largely of

workers and small shop people. In making the surveys of these communities in the autumns of 1926 and 1931, the students' descriptions of the parental occupations were classified into the groups of the Counts classification.² In addition, the author has grouped these into larger groupings of his own device for the purpose of showing trends more clearly; certain of the occupational groups have enough in common to warrant gathering them together.

In this study reference must be made to the parental occupational groups. To prevent complex verbiage, the author speaks simply of students in various occupational groups. It should be clear that this in no way refers to a grouping determined by the child; the occupational group of adolescents, even in our industrial democracy, is determined by the father.

Table I shows the number and percentage of students from each of the occupational groups and the six larger occupational groupings in the upper four grades of each of the three secondary schools in 1926 and 1931 and the change in percentage of each group between 1926 and 1931.

Our object is to see how consistently certain occupational groups (sixteen of Counts's classification) or larger occupational groupings (six devised by the author) have tended to increase or decrease during the last five years in these three high schools. First, we will examine the sixteen groups in the three schools to see which have increased. Rather regularly the laboring groups seem to con-

² George Sylvester Counts, *The Selective Character of American Secondary Education*. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 19. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago Press, 1922, pages 21-25.

¹ St. Louis Post Dispatch, January 10, 1932, p. 6A.

TABLE I

Number and Percentage of Students in Grades 9 to 12, Inclusive, from Each of the Occupational Groups and from Certain Occupational Groupings in the High Schools of Webster Groves, Kirkwood, and Wellston, Missouri

Parental Occupation	Webster Groves High School					Kirkwood High School					Wellston High School				
	Number		Percentage		Change	Number		Percentage		Change	Number		Percentage		Change
Proprietors.....	45	61	6.9	6.0	- .9	36	34	12.3	6.4	-5.9	6	10	3.9	4.5	.6
Professional service.....	121	147	18.7	14.4	-4.3	45	55	15.4	10.3	-5.1	6	6	3.9	2.7	-1.2
Managerial service.....	158	270	24.4	26.5	2.1	50	85	17.4	16.0	-1.4	28	17	18.3	7.6	-10.7
Directing group.....	324	478	50.0	46.9	-3.1	131	174	45.1	32.7	-12.4	40	33	26.1	14.8	-11.3
Commercial service.....	156	235	24.1	23.2	- .9	71	113	24.6	21.3	-3.3	12	23	7.8	10.3	2.5
Clerical service.....	50	86	7.7	8.5	.8	10	30	3.4	5.6	2.2	8	9	5.2	4.0	-1.2
White-collar workers..	206	321	31.8	31.7	- .1	81	143	28.0	26.9	-1.1	20	32	13.0	14.3	1.3
Agricultural service.....	9	26	1.4	2.5	1.1	12	47	4.1	8.9	4.8	6	9	3.9	4.0	.1
Artisan proprietor.....	11	12	1.7	1.2	-.5	9	12	3.1	2.3	-.8	10	5	6.5	2.2	-4.3
Owner workers.....	20	38	3.1	3.7	.6	21	59	7.2	11.2	4.0	16	14	10.4	6.2	-4.2
Builders trades.....	17	52	2.6	5.1	2.5	21	50	7.2	9.4	2.2	22	27	14.4	12.1	-2.3
Machine trades.....	11	24	1.7	2.4	.7	3	19	1.0	3.6	2.6	16	28	10.5	12.5	2.0
Printing trades.....	7	6	1.1	.6	-.5	0	10	0.0	1.9	1.9	1	3	.7	1.4	.7
Other trades.....	10	13	1.5	1.3	-.2	1	15	.3	2.8	2.5	5	23	3.3	10.3	7.0
Skilled trades.....	45	95	6.9	9.4	2.5	25	94	8.5	17.7	9.2	44	81	28.9	36.3	7.4
Transportation service..	23	49	3.5	4.8	1.3	12	26	4.1	4.9	.8	14	47	9.1	21.1	12.0
Public service.....	7	7	1.1	.7	-.4	7	9	2.4	1.7	-.7	1	1	.7	.5	-.2
Personal service.....	2	5	.3	.5	.2	1	7	.3	1.3	1.0	3	5	2.0	2.2	.2
Service occupations....	32	61	4.9	6.0	1.1	20	42	6.8	7.9	1.1	18	53	11.8	23.8	12.0
Miners.....	0	0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1	0	.3	0.0	-.3	0	0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Common labor.....	12	7	1.9	.7	-1.2	3	13	1.0	2.5	1.5	13	9	8.5	4.1	-4.4
Unskilled labor.....	12	7	1.9	.7	-1.2	4	13	1.3	2.5	1.2	13	9	8.5	4.1	-4.4
Unknown.....	9	11	1.4	1.6		9	6	3.1	1.1		2	1	1.3	.5	
Total.....	648	1017	100.0	100.0		291	531	100.0	100.0		153	223	100.0	100.0	

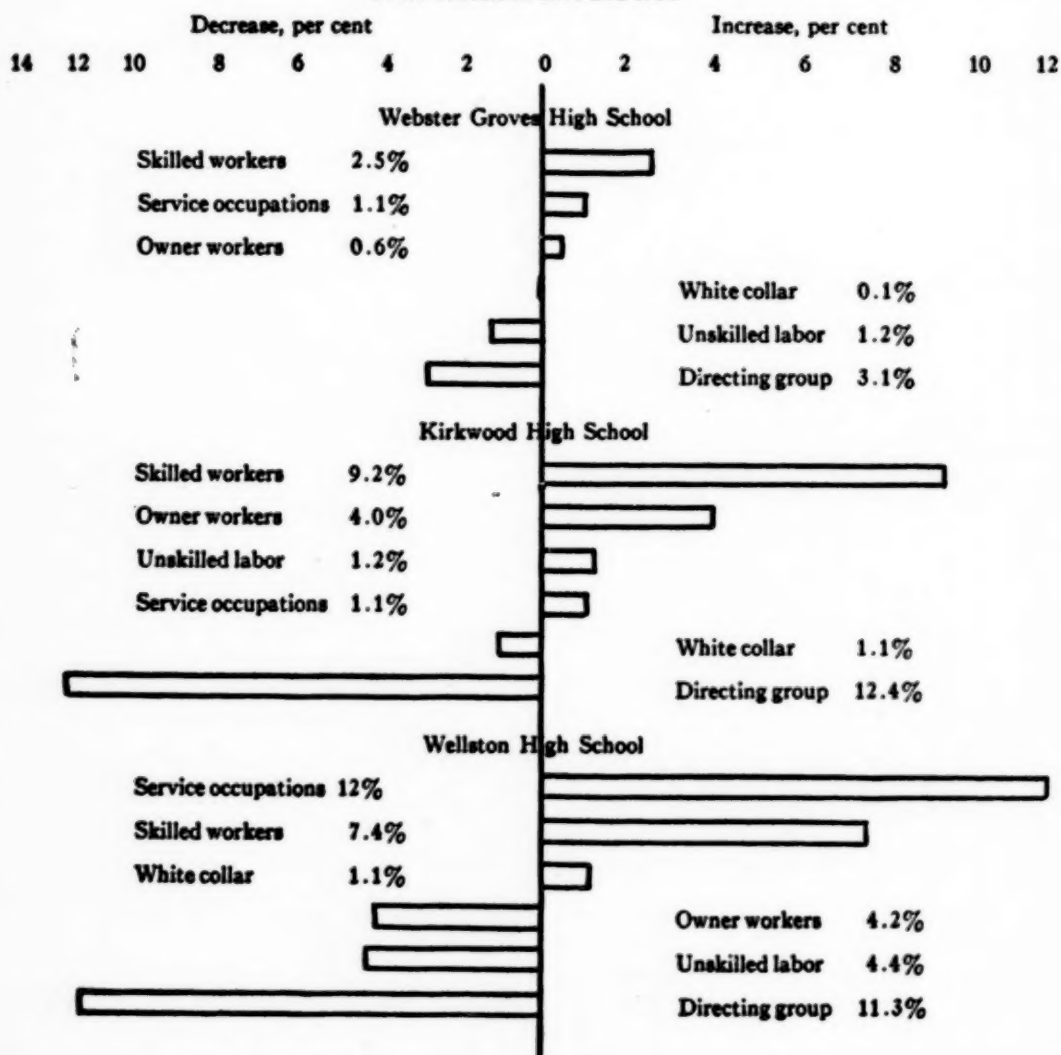
tribute a larger proportion of the high-school population than they did five years ago. In the Webster Groves High School (grades nine to twelve, inclusive), of the four occupational groups which made the greatest increases, three are laboring groups (builders' trades, transportation service, and agricultural service); in the Kirkwood High School (grades 9-12, inclusive), of the four occupational groups which made the greatest

increases, all are laboring groups (agricultural service, machine trades, other trades, and builders' trades); and in the Wellston High School (grades 9-12, inclusive), of the four occupational groups which made the greatest increases, three were laboring groups (transportation service, other trades, and machine trades).

Significant as this is, the decreases are more so, since only five of the sixteen groups

FIGURE 1

Difference in Percentage of Students from Certain Occupational Groupings in the Upper Four Grades of the Three Schools in 1926 and 1931



THE CHANGING SECONDARY SCHOOL

are nonlaboring. Yet, rather regularly, these tend to be the decreasing groups. In the Webster Groves High School, of the four groups which made the greatest decreases, three are nonlaboring groups (professional service, commercial service, and proprietors); in the Kirkwood High School, of the four groups which made the greatest decreases, all were nonlaboring (proprietors, professional service, commercial service, and managerial service); but in the Wellston High School, of the four groups which made the greatest decreases, only one was nonlaboring, but it (managerial service) accounted for almost half of the decreases. It should be noted, though, that the other nonlaboring groups were relatively small in the Wellston High School.

To obtain larger groups for the purpose of gaining greater reliability of statistics, the sixteen occupational groups were regrouped into six larger groupings: directing group (made up of proprietors, professional service, and managerial service), white-collar workers (made up of commercial service and clerical service), owner workers (made up of agricultural service and artisan proprietors), skilled workers (made up of builders, machine, printing, and other trades), service occupations (transportation service, public service, and personal service), and unskilled labor (made up of miners and common labor). When we compare these larger groupings the trends are shown quite clearly (Figure 1). The same group, the directing group, makes the greatest decline in each of the three schools. In two of the schools the greatest increase is made by skilled labor; in the third school that group makes the second greatest increase. In all three schools the service occupations show an increase. The other groups are not regular throughout the three schools, but they represent comparatively less change than do the others. Owner workers made a gain in two of the schools. The unskilled labor group

and the white-collar workers group showed a decline in two of the schools.

A general conclusion may be drawn: On the basis of this social survey of these three rather different communities we may believe that our schools are changing, that the nonlaboring classes are contributing a smaller proportion of our high schools, and that the laboring classes are contributing a larger proportion of our high-school population.

The question which will at once arise is: Does this represent a normal change or does it mean that our high schools are becoming less selective? An adequate answer cannot be given; to do so, one must repeat the Counts study. The author did not have the data on which to determine the proportion of children from each occupational group in these communities.

The answer here given is based on a priori reasoning, not on objective evidence. It is generally believed that our high schools' populations are increasing more rapidly than the population of the communities in which they are located. However, as a community increases in size, fewer persons of the nonlaboring groups are required. Yet the increase is so great that the author believes that the increase in the laboring groups represents a definite trend. He believes that the high schools are becoming less selective.

The educational implications are interesting. If the children from the laboring groups are coming into our high schools in greater numbers, we must be more concerned with the training of this new type of pupil. In a study of the achievement of children of different occupational groups the author found^a that the children whose parents were in the nonlaboring groups did better than the children whose parents were in the laboring groups, both in academic work and in the total mark.

^a "The Intelligence and Achievement of Certain Occupational Groups." Unpublished master's dissertation, Washington University, 1927.

CHARACTER IN THE MAKING

A Report of a Ninth-Grade Homeroom Meeting¹

VIRGINIA B. SMITH

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Miss Smith, of the New York State College for Teachers, presents a stenographic report of a homeroom meeting.* F. E. L.

JOHN S.: Miss Smith, haven't we a homeroom chart to put up?

TEACHER: Yes, we have one, but it isn't finished yet.

JOHN S.: Is my part finished? May I see it?

TEACHER: Will you wait a little while? That is what we are going to talk about in homeroom today.

JOHN S.: Oh, all right.

HARRY: May I have my report card?

TEACHER: Yes, you may get your own card from these.

ARTHUR (*who has his card*): What is your average?

HARRY: Oh, about 78.

ARTHUR: This isn't so bad for me. It runs about 88 in most things.

TEACHER: No, it isn't bad, but you could do a little better, couldn't you?

ARTHUR: Yes, I probably could get a couple of honor marks.

TEACHER: I think so, particularly in English and Latin. Those marks are already near 90.

JOHN: I passed everything but biology.

TEACHER: Yes. What is wrong with that biology, John?

JOHN: I don't know. I just don't seem to get it.

TEACHER: How do you behave in class?

JOHN: Oh, pretty good, I guess. At least I don't do much fooling.

ARTHUR: No, he's pretty good in class.

TEACHER: Well, John, I should suggest that you pay better attention in class. You know there might be a difference between just sitting still in class and actively paying attention, trying to get all you could from the lesson, mightn't there?

JOHN: Yes, I guess I might ask more questions.

TEACHER: That's the idea. Never leave class without understanding what has been taught and understanding exactly what you are expected to do and how to go about it.

(*Bell rings. Homeroom begins*)

(*Teacher calls roll. Bernadette, Bill Norton, Cora, Dorothy, George are absent*)

EMORY: Miss Smith, may I take Cora's report card to her? We have been taking her the assignments each night.

TEACHER: Yes, certainly. Thank you, Emory.

TEACHER: You remember we had a homeroom scoring sheet last year. Well, we have one this year too, but there are a few changes. Would you like me to explain this year's chart to you?

PUPILS: Yes.

TEACHER (*holding up blank chart*): Your monthly marks are entered here, according to the subjects you are taking. Then your marks are averaged. If your average is between 90 and 100, you win for your homeroom and for yourself 30 points. If your average is between 80 and 90, you receive 20 points.

EMORY: Good! That's what mine is.

TEACHER: If your average is between 70 and 80, you receive 10 points. If it is below 70, you receive no points. In this next column, if you have perfect attendance, you win 10 points.

JAMES: Whew! Perfect attendance!

TEACHER: Yes, several members of the homeroom received 10 points on that this month. If you are not tardy to school during the month you receive 10 points. If you are not tardy to class, 10 more. If you are sent out of class, you receive -10, or have 10 points subtracted from your score.

EDWARD: If you aren't sent out, do you get 10 points?

TEACHER: No. If a pupil is not sent out, then that space is left blank for him. If he is sent out, ten is subtracted. Suppose, with your average on marks and your points for attendance and promptness you had accumulated 50 points, but you were sent out of class once. Then you would receive 40 points instead of 50.

LEO: How did you guess exactly what I had?

WILLIAM: If you are sent out twice, does it count twice?

¹ This procedure was inspired by a similar enterprise which was very successful in a Milne Senior High School homeroom under the care of Miss Mary E. Conklin. The ninth-grade homeroom teacher initiated pupil participation in character rating with some misgiving on account of the immaturity of the pupils. After the homeroom meeting reported here, the committee met and worked for nearly two hours on rating the 23 members of the homeroom. The following day each child in the room rated himself according to the six items, and the two sets of marks are now being compared and adjusted.

CHARACTER IN THE MAKING

TEACHER: Yes: For each time you were sent out, 10 would be subtracted from your score. The next column is called Character Points.

CHARACTER POINT SYSTEM

1. *Reliability* 5
A pupil is reliable who
 - a) Takes pride in good work
 - b) Fulfills what is expected of him to the utmost of his ability
 - c) Is thoroughly dependable in all things
2. *Industry* 5
A pupil is industrious who
 - a) Works with regularity and with purpose
 - b) Is persistent in the face of difficulties
 - c) Makes judicious use of leisure time
3. *Coöperation* 5
A pupil is coöperative who
 - a) Is helpful
 - b) Works well with his teachers and other pupils
 - c) Is willing to submerge himself for the good of the common project
4. *Courtesy* 5
A pupil is courteous who
 - a) Thinks of the comfort and welfare of others with whom he is associated
 - b) Uses polite expressions at appropriate times
 - c) Does not interrupt when others are talking
5. *Sportsmanship* 5
A pupil has sportsmanship who
 - a) Abides cheerfully by school rules
 - b) Takes victory modestly
 - c) Loses without resentment
6. *Loyalty* 5
A pupil is loyal who
 - a) Makes no disparaging remarks to hurt the character of his classmates or his school
 - b) Does everything he can for the honor and service of Milne

(Reads Character Point System slowly, pausing after each item)

(After Industry, point c): What does "judicious" mean?

JOHN W.: Wise.

TEACHER (after item c of Coöperation): In other words, a pupil is coöperative who does not always insist on holding the best position but is willing to do whatever is best for the good of the group.

TEACHER (after Loyalty): "Disparaging" means harmful. Now, what do you think of this as a scale for rating character? Do you agree with it?

WILLIAM: I think they have "loyalty" wrong. It says there that you are not loyal if you make remarks that hurt the character of your classmates. Sometimes you are in a situation where you have to squeal on a friend or be blamed for something you didn't do at all. (Turns and pats arm of Leo, with whom he has been entangled in a recent escapade.)

TEACHER: I don't believe the rating scale is referring to a case like that, William. It means here malicious remarks. Perhaps by explaining the truth in the case you are speaking of, you may be really helping your friend and not harming him.

LEO: What if in class somebody next to you, just fooling, keeps hitting you and you finally say in play, "Aw, cut it out" and the teacher asks you to be quiet and you laugh, is that lack of coöperation? I don't think anybody can work all the time. You have to have some fun.

TEACHER: Of course, Leo, you are expected to enjoy things at school. And you aren't expected to sit like little wooden Indians in class and never even smile. But you know well enough what is all right and when you are disturbing the class. If the teacher asks you to quit talking and tells you you are harming your own work and that of the class, then you should coöperate with her and the other pupils, shouldn't you?

LEO: Yes. I suppose so.

TEACHER: Now, as I have told you, each person is marked on each of these six items on the basis of 5 to an item. The hard thing to do is to mark them fairly. What is the best way to mark them?

DORIS (and other pupils): You mark us.

TEACHER: No. I've tried that and I can't do it. I don't know enough about you. You see, I know you in homeroom, but I don't see you in your classes or at lunch time. I don't know half the things you know about yourselves.

ARTHUR: But we couldn't mark ourselves.

TEACHER: Why not? You know more about yourselves than I do.

EDWARD: Miss Smith, I don't think most of us pay enough attention to what we do to know whether it's right or wrong.

TEACHER: Probably not, Edward. Do you think rating yourselves might help you to pay attention to whether you are doing the right or the wrong thing?

EDWARD: It might.

LEO: How would it be if you marked us and we marked ourselves? Then if we didn't agree, we could talk over our reasons and decide on a mark

together. For instance, if you thought Leslie ought to have 20 and she marked herself 18, you could talk it over and agree on something.

TEACHER: That is a very nice idea. Has anybody else a suggestion?

VIRGINIA: We might mark each other, say have a girl watch a boy who is in her class and mark him on what he does?

ALL PUPILS: That's awful!

No good!

This is no policeman's job.

TEACHER: No. We aren't trying to "catch" people in wrongdoing. We are trying to work out some system of marking them fairly on the basis of these six items.

DORIS: Could we use a combination of these methods?

TEACHER: How, Doris?

DORIS: Oh, I don't know. We could have a committee from the homeroom mark everybody, then have everybody mark themselves.

TEACHER: And compromise the marking? That might be very good.

ARTHUR: The committee ought to have somebody from the A, B, and C sections, so they'll know how everybody is in class.

TEACHER: How many of you like that idea? Shall we have a committee mark each pupil, then have each one mark himself, and if there are any differences discuss them and arrive at an agreement?

PUPILS (*unanimously*): Yes.

TEACHER: Probably everybody should serve on this committee once during the year. Suppose this time we take volunteers to do the work. Who from the A section would like to serve? (*About five hands go up.*) How many shall I choose?

DORIS: Choose a boy and a girl.

TEACHER: Then Leo and Doris, will you be on the committee this time?

LEO and DORIS: Yes.

TEACHER: Who from the B section will serve?

All right, Alice, you and Arthur may do it this month.

Now, who from the C section?

Sam and Betty? That's fine.

LEO: When can we meet?

TEACHER: Could you meet this afternoon at 2.20.

ALICE and DORIS: We have gym until three.

ARTHUR: Why not have the people from just one section meet today?

ALICE: No, there isn't any section that has two people who can get together at 2.20. You and I can't and neither can Leo and Doris.

ARTHUR: Well, Sam and Betty could.

JAMES: Sam's a new boy. He ought to have some help.

TEACHER: Then could Sam and Betty and Leo and Arthur meet with me here at 2.20? Doris and Alice could come when they finish their gym.

LEO: Let's make it 2.30. Then we'll all be on time.

TEACHER: All right, 2.30 in this room.

BILL: Too bad on those who were sent out of class.

TEACHER: No, Bill. Sometimes it's nicer to get a low mark and know that it's no more than you deserve and bring it up next month than to start with a high mark you don't feel as if you had earned.

(*Bell rings*)

JOHN W. (*stopping at desk*): Of those six things, there are only four I could get anything on.

TEACHER: Why, John! You wouldn't mark yourself 0 on the other two, would you?

JOHN: Well, almost. For instance, sportsmanship. I couldn't possibly get more than 1 on that. I am not a good sport.

TEACHER: In what way?

JOHN: I'm a poor loser. I can't bear to lose, and I act awful when I'm defeated.

TEACHER: Well, we'll have to improve that. Anyway, you're a nice honest boy and I like you.

TIMIDITY ABOUT THE TRANSFER OF TRAINING

WILLIS L. UHL

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Here is comfort for those who like to believe that improvement in one activity may be expected to promote improvement in other related activities. Willis L. Uhl, head of the department of education of the University of Washington, applies a bit of good sense to the problem of transfer of training.* A. D. W.

FOR SOME inexplicable reason, professors of education are opposed to "transfer." That is, they say they are opposed to "formal" discipline. Ask one of them and he will begin by defining and qualifying, and you depart, saying, "Professor Vorginski does not believe in whatever he thought I meant by transfer of training." The whole affair seems to be a puzzle and you wonder what Herr Professor really does believe.

Then you continue wondering; and wondering, according to the author of a recent engaging novel, is a great boon to man. It prevents stagnation and stereotyping of ideas. You recall that a noted educationist maintains that, when identical elements are present in different situations there may be improved conduct in all these situations, if there is improvement in one of them. Another eminent authority holds that, if one generalizes experience, the experiencing of one affair may influence conduct in many other situations. Still another sage holds that, if we learn how to think about one problem, we can think more effectively about other problems.

Possibly, however, we may avoid authorities and do our own thinking. If so, we shall readily convince ourselves that all school subjects have many common characteristics and that, as a consequence, what is learned in one subject can be applied to others. We reflect that this point is so obvious that we should give it no consideration, were it not for the excessive tendency to compartmentalize learning and thus to set up barriers which impede the generalization of knowledge.

But the case is not so simple as this. For

much can be learned in any subject without a corresponding improvement in the learner's conduct. The pupil who learns in civics to repeat desirable rules of conduct which he fails to follow is an instance. The impracticability of his learning may be due either to his lack of understanding of the rules and their application or to a greater value which other principles of action seem to have. The desirable rules are disregarded or, at best, they are considered and found wanting when occasions arise for following them. They are said to be only theoretical. There is no transfer!

Unfortunately, the same is true for the pupil in science—"Pupils can state a principle when it is called for but cannot answer questions based on the application of the principle or give their own interpretation of the meaning of the principle."¹ In such a case, science, too, is only theoretical. If one goes further, it may appear that the reason for this theoretical nature of science is that the principle is not understood by pupils, unless, in addition to reading it they make various applications of it.² That which does not exist cannot be transferred.

Mathematics presents similar difficulties. "Millions for factoring but not one cent for compound interest." Such is Hedrick's comment upon formalism, when teachers carry factoring to absurd length without knowing and without their pupils' knowing the relationship of the process to geometric progres-

¹ W. L. Beauchamp, "A Preliminary Experimental Study of Technique in the Mastery of Subject Matter in Elementary Physical Science," *Studies in Education* (Supplementary Educational Monograph, 1923), I, No. 24, page 48.

² *Ibid.*, page 87.

sion and, therefore, to compound interest.³

This recital of difficulties with transfer could be extended to all subjects and the situations would be fundamentally the same: Pupils would be found learning rules and formal skills without gaining a correspondingly improved adjustment. And, in all cases, one reflects that these anomalous results are due, as stated above, either to a lack of understanding of the rules and their application or to the impracticability of the rules in life situations. Without profound experimentation, but with abundant observation, one reflects also that the remedy lies with the teacher and the pupil: Teachers should present only those rules which they understand and can apply and these rules should be presented only to pupils who can apply them.

In all subjects, then, principles are found which must be applied to a variety of situations, if they are to become general to the pupil. This specific applying of a principle, which the preceding paragraphs have indicated as needed in all subjects, can be initiated by either the teacher or the pupil. The teacher may make such applications either to increase the understanding of the principle itself, or to facilitate the practical application to the vital situations in which the pupil is directed to use his general principle. Able pupils may do likewise on their own initiative.

If the reflector were a schoolboy, he would ask, "How come?" For it appears that he agrees with Thorndike, Judd, and Dewey. If situations are in some respects identical, if truths learned in one situation are generalized upon, or if problem solving is learned, then there is transfer. It seems that common, everyday observation agrees with the masters. What exists as knowledge or method can be transferred.

³ E. R. Hedrick, "What Mathematics Means to the World," *Mathematics Teacher*, 1932, XXV, 5, 249-263.

Transfer of improved efficiency seems as plain as day to every one. Why not admit it? If one learns where middle C is on the piano, why not admit that one can quickly find it on the pedals of an organ—the black and white keys are the same on the pedals as on the piano. If one learns in algebra that an unknown has to be searched for diligently and according to Dewey's rules for thinking, why not admit that the same holds in geometry? And, if one learns in geometry that the pupil must know the rules of the game before solving a theorem, why not admit that the same holds for any other problem?

No one holds that the motor ability to repeat a rule is guaranty of its effectiveness in conduct. But every one holds that the understanding of a rule is a guaranty of its application. What one knows is certain to influence judgments and conduct.⁴ If, then, a rule has an application to situations other than those in which it was learned, it has something that will and does transfer. Strangely enough, it may appear, Coover's data support this conclusion.⁵

"Common sense" and science agree. If a high-school pupil learns something in one situation, progress in another situation may be increased. If a pupil learns how to do something in one situation, he may at the same time be learning how to do something in another situation. Coover found transfer in many trivial cases. He concluded that if transfer occurs in such cases, there must be even greater transfer in school subjects when pupils spend from one to four or more years upon them.⁶ The only mystery about the affair is that experts in educational measurement have failed to find out how much is transferred.

⁴ John Dewey, *Essays in Experimental Logic* (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1916), pp. 390-442.

⁵ J. E. Coover, "Formal Discipline from the Standpoint of Experimental Psychology," *Psychological Monograph*, 1916, XX, No. 3.

⁶ *Ibid.*

THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL AND VOCATIONAL INFORMATION

An Evaluation in Terms of Vocational Information

GEORGE N. BOONE

EDITOR'S NOTE: *George N. Boone, counselor at the Washington Junior High School, Pasadena, California, believes that the vocational information which junior-high-school boys and girls are receiving helps them to make wiser choices of vocations. If the program accomplishes this it surely is justifiable.*

H. H. V. C.

AMONG THE basic philosophies upon which the junior high school has been conceived, is the thesis that these formative and plastic years of the child's life should be spent in the exploration of many fields of study. As a result of this exploratory experience the student may be expected to be better able to make choices that would enhance his future development vocationally, educationally, socially, and morally.

The problem of the occupational and vocational orientation of students is being realized as one of the most important ones that face the schools. Gone are the days of the simple trades and the apprenticeship system which at the time so satisfactorily prepared the youth for his life work. Instead we have today a bewildering, highly specialized industrial system, called by some a technocracy which seems to resemble a Frankenstein monster, that defies control and threatens to disrupt and destroy our social order.

Statisticians inform us that there are approximately ten or twelve million adults now unemployed. The task which faces society seems the more formidable when it is realized that there are about ten million boys and girls who, within a decade, must be added to the ranks of the employed. Thus it is demonstrated that the present economic depression has so greatly complicated the problems of vocational and educational guidance that the school and society must pledge themselves to greater efforts for their solution.

Those who would curtail education be-

yond the elementary grades would do well to ponder the problem of what would become of the boys and girls who would be denied schoolroom privileges. It is obvious that they cannot be absorbed into industry, since our able-bodied adults are not being employed. Families of means would be able to patronize the private schools which would doubtless increase, but this necessarily would care for but comparatively few.

Any one who is at all conscious of the trends of thought among our people recognizes that the secondary school of the next decade will make provision for the entire adolescent population. We have demonstrated that there is no better place for a boy or girl of high-school age to spend his time than in a good school. The old guard that is standing by to protect our schools from lowered standards and mediocre ability is giving way before an aroused public opinion. The sad spectacle of a school lobby at the State legislature opposing compulsory education attendance until the age of eighteen while lobbies of labor and lobbies of manufacturers support this bill must surely give way to universal acceptance of the principle that all pupils of secondary-school age will be received in the school and suitable provisions be made for their education.¹

The fact that there has been a marked influx of the youth into the schools indicates a proportional decline of the youth in employment. Boys and girls are now being retained in schools until they are eighteen years of age, and since it seems industry is ceasing to make vocational education provision for its workers, it behooves the schools to

¹ Address delivered before the Department of Secondary School Principals, National Educational Association, Atlantic City, N.J., June 28, 1932, by Forrest E. Long, professor of education, New York University.

provide adequate vocational information, guidance, and training.

Vocational guidance, worthy of the name, implies a threefold responsibility: (1) that of informing the student of the nature of occupations and of occupational opportunity, (2) assisting the pupil to analyze himself, his interests and abilities, and (3) helping him to match wisely his aptitude with a consistent occupation.

A pertinent and pressing question which confronts the junior-high-school educator is the extent to which such procedure should be emphasized in this type of school. It is difficult to find data other than mere opinion on this question. Koos and Kefauver have recently made available considerable excellent material on the vocational provisions of the secondary school, but most of these studies deal rather with the high school and junior college.²

Some maintain that the junior-high-school student is too young to give serious consideration to problems of vocational information and choice. Others believe that if we hold exploratory opportunity to be one of the chief functions of the junior high school, such experience should result in rather early vocational choice. Because some of the studies that have been made indicate that students in the higher levels of education have made vocational choices fairly satisfactorily, it has been assumed that the junior high school has been largely responsible for this and has discharged its duty in a satisfactory manner.

The fact that vocational choice seems very important in shaping the educational programs of students has induced guidance workers to insist upon early vocational decisions in the junior and senior high schools often at the expense of the wisdom and pertinence of such choices. Koos and Kefauver report that nearly a fourth of the schools

studied by them made special study of occupational choices of their students to afford a better basis for guidance. They further state that junior high schools have been most active in this regard.³ These authors publish an interesting study of high-school vocational decisions made by Mrs. Mabel R. Wauchope, a graduate student in the University of Minnesota.

Percentages of students with vocational choices as reported in eighteen investigations:

<i>Per cent of students with choices</i>	<i>Number of investigations</i>
90 and over	5
80-89	9
70-79	3
60-69	1

These returns show that high-school students have given much consideration to their life careers. Only a single study reported less than 70 per cent of the students with choices. Fourteen of the eighteen investigations reported percentages of 80 or over.

In comparisons that have been made in published studies, students with vocational choices do not differ significantly from students without choices. The percentages with choices are as large for girls as for boys. The data available do not show a significant difference between junior-high-school and senior-high-school pupils in the proportion with choices.⁴

Dr. Kefauver further reports that his data show no significant difference with respect to vocational choice between students of low and high ratings on mental tests, and that students regardless of sex, grade, age, and intelligence have in large proportions made choices of occupations.

In order to supplement the findings of these and other studies the present writer became interested in making a study in the five junior high schools of Pasadena, California, to determine the extent of the vocational choice of the students in these

² Koos and Kefauver, *Guidance in Secondary Schools* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932).

³ Koos and Kefauver, *op. cit.*, p. 204.

VOCATIONAL INFORMATION

OCCUPATIONAL CHOICE BLANK

Name Grade Date 193

last first

Age Sex Homeroom teacher School

Directions to Students

The information asked for on this blank is for the purpose of helping you in your future school work, so please answer each question very carefully and thoughtfully.

1. At present have you an occupational interest that you would like to make your life work?

() Yes () No () Undecided

2. If you have an occupational choice will you write it in the blank space?

.....

3. Check about how long you think you have had this interest.

() One year () Two years () Three or more years

.....

4. Why do you think you should choose this occupation?

.....

5. Check whether the main influences which caused you to make this choice came from () within school () from the outside.

6. Mark 1, 2, 3, in order of importance any of the following sources of information you have had about any occupations in the junior high school.

() Ninth-grade social science () Other school subjects

.....

.....

(Names of subjects)

() Homeroom () Talks and lectures () Reading

() Visits to occupations () Interviews or conferences

() Movies or pictures

Directions to homeroom teachers

At your earliest opportunity kindly have these blanks filled out by as nearly all of your students as possible. Then arrange the blanks in alphabetical order and tally the answers, boys and girls separately, to questions 1, 3, 5, and 6 on special tally sheets provided.

Next send these blanks with your tally sheets to your principal's office.

schools and also the sources of the occupational information they were receiving.

To get initial data to begin this study, a vocational interest blank containing six questions which could be rather easily checked was prepared. These blanks were submitted through the personal touch of the homeroom to approximately five thousand students. A copy of the blank with its instructions to students and homeroom teachers is included here.

The questions 1, 3, 5, and 6 are the significant ones so far as this study is concerned.

The results were compiled by grades, and composite totals also made for all grades for each question. In order to make comparisons between boys and girls the questionnaires were tallied separately for each sex. The tallies were likewise made for the different grades. Since the Pasadena schools operate on the six-four-four plan which includes the tenth grade with the seventh, eighth, and

ninth in the junior high school, it was easily possible to get reactions from tenth-grade students, which gives a vocational interest check one year beyond the usual junior-high-school set-up.

Question one with its three answers—yes, no, and undecided—one of which the student was asked to check, was intended to

TABLE I

TABLE SHOWING THE PERCENTAGES OF BOYS AND GIRLS IN PASADENA JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS WHO HAVE MADE VOCATIONAL CHOICES

Grade		Yes	No	Undecided
Seventh	Girls	59.7	8.1	32.2
	Boys	58.5	9.9	27.2
Eighth	Girls	67.7	6.0	26.3
	Boys	64.0	6.7	29.3
Ninth	Girls	75.0	2.9	22.1
	Boys	72.7	6.5	20.8
Tenth	Girls	71.6	3.1	25.3
	Boys	72.8	5.2	22.0
All grades	Girls	68.3	5.3	26.4
	Boys	65.0	7.2	27.8

determine status of the junior-high-school student with reference to vocational choice.

The results as shown in Table I indicate a high percentage ranging from 58 to 75 of girls and boys in the four grades who signified they had made vocational choices. The percentage seems to increase to the highest point in the ninth grade. The total figures for all grades vary little from those of any single grade. It appears here as in Kefauver's study that there is little difference between boys and girls with respect to vocational choice.

The third question of this interest blank, with its answers one year, two years, and three or more years, was aimed to determine the persistence of the vocational interests chosen. The data in Table II with the high percentages in every grade for the answer "three or more years" seem to indicate considerable persistency of choice. Again little

TABLE II

TABLE SHOWING THE PERSISTENCE OF VOCATIONAL INTERESTS OF THE BOYS AND GIRLS OF PASADENA JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Grade		1 year	2 years	3 or more years
Seventh	Girls	26.0	29.8	45.2
	Boys	27.2	34.0	38.8
Eighth	Girls	30.3	29.1	40.6
	Boys	30.3	26.9	42.8
Ninth	Girls	33.2	28.0	38.8
	Boys	27.7	29.1	43.5
Tenth	Girls	28.1	25.8	44.1
	Boys	29.5	28.5	42.0
All grades	Girls	30.0	28.4	41.6
	Boys	28.4	29.8	41.8

difference appears between the reactions of boys and girls.

Question five asked the student to indicate whether he felt the main influences which caused him to make his vocational

TABLE III

TABLE SHOWING STUDENTS' OPINIONS AS TO WHETHER THE INFLUENCES WHICH CAUSED THEM TO MAKE VOCATIONAL CHOICES CAME FROM WITHIN OR OUTSIDE THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Grade		Within	Outside
Seventh	Girls	24.9	75.1
	Boys	21.9	78.1
Eighth	Girls	25.3	74.7
	Boys	16.8	83.2
Ninth	Girls	32.2	67.8
	Boys	24.6	75.4
Tenth	Girls	30.7	69.3
	Boys	32.6	67.4
All grades	Girls	27.8	72.2
	Boys	23.6	76.4

choice came from within or outside the school. In this question the phrase "main influences" may have been perplexing, but the tabulated data indicate that for these students the environment outside the school is more influential than that within. In attempting to interpret the data of Table III it might be suggested that students of this

VOCATIONAL INFORMATION

age are more inclined to vocational interest because of the glamour of immediate contact or proximity rather than on the basis of occupational information and prudent reflective choice. If a careful study were made of the occupations chosen in these early years, it might show that these choices were largely confined to the less skilled occupations and those represented within the community, which would account somewhat for the greater vocational influence outside the school. Table III shows furthermore that as the students advance in grades, the school influence becomes more potent with respect to vocational interest and choice.

The sixth question was formed with the idea of comparing the function of various sources within the junior high school as to

without ranking those they deemed to be influential. The percentage of scores for each source of the entire number of scores for all sources indicates the relative importance these students place upon these sources.

In Pasadena most occupational information is consciously given in the ninth-grade social-science course, required of all students except those preparing for colleges which have such strict requirements to be met that the student is not permitted to take this course.

Obviously since the seventh and eighth grades had not yet experienced ninth-grade social science there would be no checking of this item in these grades. While in the ninth and tenth grades these sources were scored 10.8 girls, 15.2 boys; and 10.2 girls,

TABLE IV
TABLE SHOWING THE SOURCES FROM WHICH THE JUNIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS SAY
THEY ARE GETTING THEIR VOCATIONAL INFORMATION IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Grade	Ninth-grade social science	Other Subjects	Homeroom	Talks and lectures	Reading	Industrial visits	Interviews or conferences	Movies or pictures
Seventh								
Girls	0	28.7	2.5	9.4	18.0	14.0	10.6	16.8
Boys	0	23.2	2.6	8.6	19.6	18.8	9.9	17.3
Eighth								
Girls	0	28.0	5.4	9.3	18.4	14.1	10.5	14.3
Boys	0	26.5	7.1	9.2	17.4	16.1	9.2	13.4
Ninth								
Girls	10.8	24.2	6.1	9.9	17.8	12.1	9.6	9.5
Boys	15.2	20.8	4.2	9.5	11.3	14.1	8.1	11.0
Tenth								
Girls	10.2	23.2	5.3	10.4	18.0	11.6	12.8	8.5
Boys	12.4	23.8	5.2	8.9	17.3	12.9	9.8	9.6
All grades								
Girls	10.6	25.4	5.0	9.8	18.0	12.8	10.9	12.3
Boys	13.8	22.7	4.8	8.3	17.7	15.3	10.1	12.7

their efficiency in transmitting vocational information to the students. On the original questionnaire the students were asked to check the sources from which they felt they had received any vocational information and also to rank in importance those they checked. However, this proved so confusing to many of the students that they checked

and 12.4 boys, respectively, which indicates that these students believe this course to be an important source of vocational information. The homeroom is recognized as giving information concerning occupations with the heaviest score in the eighth grade where such information is emphasized as a specific item for consideration by the homeroom.

The scoring of the other items by grades is so relatively equal that perhaps only a perusal of the totals for all grades is sufficient to make generalizations.

If each source were equally important, its score would be approximately 12.5. Comparison of those sources which fall above or below this per cent gives indication as to the importance of these as influences in transmitting vocational information to these students. From these figures it may be seen that school subjects rank highest as doubtless they should if their exploratory intent is functioning. Especially is this true of shop and home-economics courses where special effort is made to give related occupational information.

The satisfactory showing as to conferences and interviews might be construed to indicate splendid work on the part of interested teachers, administrators, and counselors, while those who are most responsible for the fine visual-education program in Pasadena should find much to please them in terms of the score on this source.

Talks and lectures seem to be less influential than would be expected, although it might be stated that there has been considerable limitation of these sources in the Pasadena junior high schools recently because of administrative difficulty in coordinating these with the other phases of the school program.

Reading of various types naturally ranks quite high. The junior high school largely controls the reading of the child as well as the other sources in this sixth question, which indicates that students were not actually aware of the power of these influences and have consequently given undue weight to factors outside school as previously indicated by Table III.

An evaluation of the junior high school in terms of the vocational information given will be difficult until an authentic study of a number of actual cases is made which follows these cases not only through junior high

school, but through subsequent periods of educational experience and into actual life itself. Dr. Harbeson in a study of the nature of certificate and diploma students in the Pasadena Junior College reports that 63.1 men and 59.1 women of the certificate group had chosen occupations as compared with 57.5 men and 73.2 women of the diploma group. It is to be noted that these figures as well as those previously cited from Mrs. Wauchope's study differ little from the percentages of those having made occupational choices as shown by Table I of this study.⁴

It is not the purpose in Pasadena to force early vocational choice, nor are these apparent interests held to be more than merely tentative in spite of some indicated permanence, but it is considered highly desirable that vocational information and opportunity be continually presented to students and that they be impressed with the importance of vocations in their lives.

In conclusion, it appears that the junior high school need not apologize for its efforts to give vocational information. Although early choices may be replaced by others as the student becomes better informed, the very fact that he struggles with his problems should aid in guaranteeing a better ultimate solution. That the junior high schools in Pasadena and elsewhere are giving valuable vocational information is evident. Due to the inherent weaknesses of the questionnaire method, all of which the one used in this study possesses, the results are not to be considered infallible but probably they do show trend and direction. As has been said, a need is clearly shown for a more detailed and extensive follow-up covering a much greater period of time. Until such specific and objective data are available, vocational information in the junior high school should be increased and motivated rather than curtailed.

⁴ Harbeson, *Classifying Junior College Students*. Dissertation for degree of doctor of philosophy, University of Southern California, May 1931.

STRAWS IN THE EDUCATIONAL WIND

WILLIAM McANDREW

People Must be Taught Politics. The people, for their proper security, must be taught to see that defenses are continuously maintained to defend themselves against party machinery controlled by a few. Governor Charles E. Hughes, *New York State Policy*, 1909.

Education's Promise to Reduce Crime. In 1820, Daniel Webster proclaimed that every man should be taxed for the support of schools as a police protection, and this whether he had any children or not. Cheesman A. Herrick, president, Girard College, *Reclaiming a Commonwealth*, 1911.

Just Beginning to Sense Civic Education. Society is just beginning to realize the possibilities of education for the well-being of society. Education is the most important single way of preparing the future citizen for his civic responsibilities. General Education Board, Annual Report, 1916-17, p. 4.

Chief Aims must be Those Enumerated in the United States Constitution. The chief aims of public education must be those specifically enumerated in the Constitution: more perfect union, justice, domestic tranquillity, common defense, general welfare and the blessings of liberty. Clark Howell, editor, *Atlanta Constitution*, in *World's Work*, September 1923.

Civic Education of the Highest Importance. Education which is of any practical value to the government of a nation means the teaching whereby the majority of electors may select reliable public servants. F. Marion Crawford, quoted in Hayes's *American Democracy*, 1921.

Schools as the Safeguard of the Republic. Jefferson was well informed upon all the republics of history. He knew of their failures. Yet the sublime confidence of his life was that a self-governing people trained to their duties by public schools would preserve and perfect this latest democracy. Newton D. Baker, National Education Association, Cleveland, 1923.

Unanimity of Acceptance of the Political Duty of Education. French Strother in 1923 canvassed governors, Senators, and editors asking what the main purpose of the public schools should be. The one aim occurring in all the replies was a better civic, political life. *World's Work*, September 1923.

A Reciprocal Duty. As democracy made the public school, the public school must make democracy. Thomas E. Finegan, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Pennsylvania. Address to school superintendents, 1923.

Education must be the Handmaid of Citizenship. Our condition demands the solicitude of all patriotic citizens. It involves communities and the nation itself; for the welfare of the country depends on the character and intelligence of those who cast the ballots. Popular government can be predicated only on popular education. Merely to state the American ideal is to show how far we are from its realization, education must be the handmaid of citizenship. Unless our institutions are known and their value is comprehended, the citizen falls prey to selfish agitators who exploit his prejudices to their own advantage. For this the ballot box should furnish a complete remedy. Unless there be sound economic teaching in our schools the voter and taxpayer is in danger. Calvin Coolidge, *America's Need for Education*, 1925.

Education for National Welfare. The American people have conceived of education as being essential to the welfare of the state. They have established State systems of education to enforce this idea. Upon our public-school system, and upon it almost alone, must we place dependence for our social and political salvation. It is in our public schools that our people, young and adult, must be brought to understand our political institutions, be filled with the spirit and ideals of our national life, and be trained for responsible citizenship in a democracy such as ours. Ellwood P. Cubberley, *Introduction to the Study of Education*, 1925.

Education Must Provide for Maintaining Democracy. Without popular education no government which rests on popular action can long endure. The people must be schooled in the knowledge and the virtues upon which the maintenance and success of free institutions depend. Woodrow Wilson, *The State*.

Good Citizenship due from Public Schools. Where the state has bestowed education, he who accepts it must be content to accept it merely as a charity unless he returns it to the state in full in the shape of good citizenship. Theodore Roosevelt, Utica address.

OTHERS SAY

FLOYD E. HARSHMAN

THE GOLD COAST COMMITTEE TAKES CHARGE

A committee of one hundred big taxpayers in Chicago has wrested the control of expenditure for education from the legal body. After the board of education had voluntarily cut \$11,000,000 from the budget, the Gold Coast group cut it \$15,000,000 more. The committee then cut another \$4,000,000 from what remained. And all of this comes from those who do not send their children to public schools. It comes from a group which collects \$6,000,000 in interest on school loans every year.

Such a usurpation of power by an extralegal group should be a warning to society. Our social institutions need to be safeguarded. Democratic principles are at stake. A dangerous sort of dictatorship is here represented. Can communities no longer feel free to decide upon the education of their children?—*Phi Delta Kappan*, February 1933.

PUBLIC SUPPORT OF SCHOOLS

It costs about one hundred dollars to keep a boy or girl in high school. It costs nearly three hundred dollars to keep the same individual in jail. Not original, but true. Why injure education and seriously handicap youth?

The following are some thoughts gleaned from reading various publications. They may help teachers and administrators when beset by destructive critics.

Schools account for only 25 per cent of the taxes collected for all public services.

School costs have increased in the last fifteen years because enrollments have increased, services have been improved, and the dollar has depreciated in value.

Education costs only 3 1/3 per cent of the national income. The percentage is relatively higher since income is reduced.

During the period from 1914 to 1930 school terms lengthened 9 per cent and enrollments increased 35 per cent (high-school enrollments over 250). The increase in costs can be accounted for in these figures, plus supplying and maintaining the buildings to house the increasing numbers of pupils.

Ours is one of the few businesses which is experiencing an increase in volume. To injure its effectiveness is to endanger the future of the republic.

During the postwar years of unprecedented business "boom," many business men were blinded to the truth. Some even came to believe that in their

executive capacities they were really worth huge salaries. During the same period, educators slowly fought their way nearer to the goal of adequate compensation for a truly important public service.

The executive mentioned has now, due to depression, been reduced to much nearer what he is worth to society. Through momentary shock, his first concern is to cut expenses. Education offers a defenseless object of attack. Sober reflection will prove to the most of them that education is not over expensive and should be maintained at safe levels.

During this adjustment period, teachers everywhere must keep in mind that whatever happens, financially or otherwise, their services to the boys and girls in school must not be injured. We must keep in mind that whatever happens to the income or security of the individual, we are on the job to teach youth. History will, one day, record the fact that "teachers stuck to their guns" and did their duty.

IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHING METHODS

In presenting a view of the nation's educational progress, the President's Research Committee on Social Trends finds the following items of improved teaching method:

1. The slavish dependence upon the single textbook has in many schools been supplanted by the library method of gathering material from several sources. Thus pupils are encouraged to compare different views and methods of presentation and cultivate mental independence and judgment.

2. Supervised study is gaining in popularity and in many schools a separate period is set aside for consultations between pupil and teacher. Class periods have been lengthened from forty or fifty-five minutes to sixty, or even ninety minutes, to permit effective application of the supervised study plan.

3. Differentiations in the difficulty and amount of material assigned are made to meet the varying needs of dull, mediocre, and bright pupils. Separate classes have been established based on these variations of pupil abilities.

4. Changes in the curricula and methods of presentation have helped to reduce to a minimum the problem of maintaining discipline. When pupils are genuinely interested this problem disappears and the necessity for the harsher forms of punishment as well.

5. Extracurricular activities, consisting of clubs,

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debating teams, sports, etc., have been organized to absorb the surplus energies of young people.

6. Educational guidance to aid the pupils in selecting properly their elective subjects is becoming more general in secondary schools.

7. Vocational guidance has attained tremendous vogue and use.

8. Truancy or attendance officers have attained the status of social workers in their work of remedying truancy and delinquency.

9. Health education, including courses in hygiene, medical examination, dental clinics, balanced diets in school lunches, visits to homes by nurses and teachers, psychiatric examination, and study of behavior problems, has developed rapidly and consistently. —*School Management*, February 1933.

In these days when "cut school budgets" seems to be an expression in the air all of the time, the following note from *The California Classroom Teacher* should be remembered:

"Give us time to be intelligent! With that, we can enter upon the campaigns that will be necessary with a spirit of faith in the righteousness of the cause we support, for we will have had an opportunity to use the brains with which we are endowed. We will not merely be echoing, parrotlike, a few frantic catch phrases.

"In this day of moratoriums, let us declare a holiday on school legislation, and a prolonged term of study of school needs."

SCHOOL NEWS

S. O. ROREM

NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE

The National Child Labor Committee in its report for 1932 made public December 19 at its headquarters, 331 Fourth Avenue, New York City, states that in spite of the growing sentiment for eliminating the employment of children as an unemployment relief measure, very little progress in child-labor legislation was made in the nine State legislatures which met in regular session in 1932. The Committee also reports that in several States in which special sessions of the legislature were called, there were attempts to break down child labor and school attendance standards which have been built up over a long period of years.

Constructive legislation is reported only in Louisiana, which empowered municipalities to establish compulsory continuation schools for employed children, established in New Orleans a sixth-grade requirement for children between 14 and 16

years leaving school for work, and provided for the appointment in New Orleans of a vocational counselor for children going to work and a safety engineer; and in New Jersey which amended its statutes regulating the employment of minors between 16 and 18 years in dangerous occupations. The legislature of Massachusetts which defeated many progressive child-labor measures strengthened, however, its tenement homework law.

"DEMOCRACY WAS BORN 1,932 YEARS AGO"

This little statement from the *Public School Bulletin* of Hamtramck, Michigan, raises a question in our minds. After all these years of struggle, are we to allow a little economic stress hurt our democratic institutions? This is the time for keeping our public informed as to needs in education. We cannot afford to let go the growth due to years of effort.

BOOK NOTES

MILDRED BATCHELDER

The ardent follower of book reviews seldom believes, in their entirety, the reviews which he reads. These impressions of books are looked upon as opinions which, obviously, are colored by the individual taste of the reviewer. Thus it should be. Gradually the reader becomes acquainted with the more frequently appearing reviewers and this acquaintance, balanced with the reader's own opinion of some of the books reviewed, gives an index to the particular bias or prejudice or hobby which may influence the book reviews done by an individual writer. Only when the special interests and studies, as well as the enthusiasms or distastes of the reviewer, are known can reviews serve as intelligent stimulants to reading and helpful guides in the selection of books.

There are many sources of interesting reviews of adult books and most people with curiosity about new books follow a few sources of reviews regularly. When one of these becomes unsatisfactory there are always others to turn to. They may be flip-pant or serious, superficial or of the monograph type, descriptive or critical—all kinds are available. The reader of adult books has only to choose his book-review periodicals in order to keep up with the output of books.

No such satisfactory condition exists for the criticism of books for children. In the last fifteen years there has been a marked progress in the content quality and in the physical make-up of children's books. Those people, parents and teachers and young people themselves, who have watched closely have enjoyed this new advance but many of the finest children's books come to the attention of but a small part of the readers who would read and appreciate them were they acquainted with them. Children's librarians, school librarians, and the better bookstores study the publishers' lists and read and

evaluate the books as they come out but they have no such encouraging reminders of interesting appearances in this field as is provided by the reviewers of adult books. Occasionally a review of a children's book appears, but all too often it is an expanded version of the publisher's announcement of the book. It is true that, during Book Week in November, there are many reviews of children's books but once a year does not serve.

There has been some important reviewing of books for children. Miss Anne Carroll Moore of the New York Public Library did discriminating reviews first in *The Bookman* and later in editing her "Three Owls" page of *Books*, the weekly section of the *New York Herald Tribune*. Unfortunately her editorship of this page has been discontinued. *The Horn Book* published by the Bookshop for Boys and Girls in Boston is an excellent quarterly magazine which has long reviews of those books which are particularly noteworthy and short comments about many other new books. It has, in addition, extremely interesting articles by and about present writers of books for children. This periodical is not nearly as well known as its quality and usefulness deserve and, with its infrequent publication, it cannot keep readers informed of books as they are published.

With so few ways of keeping in touch with the new children's books, it is not strange that some of the best books are never found by some of the people who would enjoy using them. A few outstanding books for one group of readers will serve as examples of books which may have been overlooked. In the last year or two there have been some unusually good books for older girls. This type of book is always needed and is very frequently poor. One of these

BOOK NOTES

would be a welcome discovery to a teacher of nineteenth-century American history, if her students included girls in the eighth, ninth, or tenth grades. It is Caroline Dale Snedeker's *Beckoning Road* (Doubleday, Doran), the setting of which is in New Harmony during Robert Owen's brave effort to establish an ideal community. It centers about attractive Dency Coffyn and her family who went out there from Nantucket, making the weary journey by covered wagon until, by good fortune, they were able to complete their trip on the "Boatload of Knowledge." Many of the incidents in the story come from recorded happenings in the community. The story has the spirit of that experiment and includes among its characters many of the people who were prominent in the town. The romance of Dency Coffyn is sustained throughout the book and makes it popular aside from its fascinating background. If curiosity about the community is aroused, there is another book by Mrs. Snedeker which makes an excellent "next book" after *Beckoning Road*. It is *Town of the Fearless* (Doubleday, Doran) and it tells of the people who influenced New Harmony; Pestalozzi, Joseph Neef, William McClure, and Robert Owen and all his family. The purchase of the town from the Rappites, the development of the town, its practice of using not money but labor certificates as a medium of exchange, its weekly balls, its lectures, its music, are all pictured. The author is a descendant of the Neef and Owen families and has gathered in one place many of the traditions and tales which make New Harmony live again in her book.

Since Mayan civilization has caught the attention and imagination of adults and young people alike, the romantic story, *The Dark Star of Itza* (Harcourt, Brace) by Alida Sims Malkus arrived most opportunely. The tale tells of Nicté, daughter of the high priest, whose warnings, the result of gazing into the black crystal, went unheeded. The

city of Chichen Itza fell to the enemy and the new ruler was unhappy and unsuccessful in establishing himself. His unhappiness lay in Nicté's continued refusal to become his queen. His plans for the city were unsuccessful because the rainy season was long delayed and the people stopped all their work in fear for their crops and their future. At last, Nicté offered herself as a sacrifice to the rain god who dwelt in the sacred well and the sacrifice was made. Deep in the well Nicté's almost unconscious body was drawn to one side by the young nobleman whom she loved but who was thought to be in a far-away town. This elaboration of the legend of the sacred well has the atmosphere of the Mayan life in its descriptions, in its dances and ceremonies, and in its songs. It is carefully and accurately done, depicting customs of the people, their homes, their beautiful and elaborate buildings and temples, and the instability of their small kingdoms. Though the setting is ancient and unfamiliar, the characters are convincing and it is for the story built around these persons that the book is read and liked. The book does more than recreate the times of which it tells. It stimulates a desire for more stories of that civilization and it is not unusual for a girl who has read this to go on to Willard's *City of the Sacred Well* (Century) and Ann Axtel Morris's *Digging in Yucatan* (Doubleday, Doran).

Another book in this group for older girls is *Young Trajan* (Doubleday, Doran) written by Elizabeth Cleveland Miller. It is of modern Roumania, picturing the difficult life of the peasant who has no land of his own but must eternally rent land from the overlord at an exorbitant rent which cannot be paid in years of poor crops. Frosina, a peasant's daughter, was sent to a school where she might learn fine sewing and embroidery. Food was insufficient in her home and her work would bring a slight recompense. While at the school she came in con-

tact with a young carpenter, a leader among the people who wished to have land of their own, land which they might buy at not too great a price. After illness and discouragement at home, Frosina was obliged to leave the school and work as a servant at the Manor House. This work enabled her to know of things which were going on there and thus to help Trajan. In spite of the cruel and ambitious Ghitsa, the master of the Manor House was persuaded to give land to his peasants and Frosina and Trajan were able to plan for their marriage.

The costumes and the gay holiday festivities, feasting, and dancing make an unusual picture for American readers. So, also, do the groups of children singing their songs on the many saints' days and waiting at the door for sweets. There are many supersti-

tions, each with its corresponding spell for, as Baba Stanca, the old cook, told Frosina, "Don't neglect the proper words, for there is no spell in all the world that can be worked without the help of words. Words have magic. Was not our Lord called the Word?"

Young Trajan is one of the books which gives its readers an intimate and friendly contact with another country, a sense of understanding and sympathy which will contribute its small part towards international friendship.

The significance of these books in making history interesting, awakening thought about Mayan civilization and introducing broader friendships is secondary, for each book stands on its own merits as a well-imagined, well-constructed, and well-written story.

BOOK REVIEWS

Problems of Teaching Business Arithmetic, by Paul S. Lomax and John J. W. Neuner. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1932, ix + 183 pages.

This well-written and well-documented little book should find a welcome place on the desks of many teachers of business arithmetic and of teachers of arithmetic of the middle and upper grades. It is the opinion of the reviewer that teachers of fifth-, sixth-, and seventh-grade arithmetic would probably examine with renewed interest their own work if they were more fully cognizant of the amount of remedial and preparatory work teachers of business arithmetic must cover with many students before they can profitably proceed with the type of work that properly belongs to ninth grade.

It would seem that the real problem of the teacher of business arithmetic at this time is to find a technique and content that will meet the needs of two distinct types of pupils coming into commercial classes: (1) those who know the nature of the fundamental processes and have standard eighth-grade computing and problem-solving skill; (2) those who fall far below eighth-grade computing standards and know scarcely anything about problem solving. Failure to take account of this situation is a major weakness of any discussion dealing with problems of teaching business arithmetic.

It is the reviewer's judgment that chapter IX, Methods of Teaching Business Arithmetic, can be improved as follows:

1. Cancellation in problem solving should be encouraged instead of condemned because the computation of many problems properly expressed in cancellation form lends itself to the use of the slide rule and other calculating devices.
2. Less stress should be put upon the sequence of discounts in trade discount because for a given list price 10 per cent, 20 per cent off mathematically gives the same net as 20 per cent, 10 per cent off.
3. The solution of finding net cost when two or more discounts are involved should be indicated in one equation instead of employing the long and involved process shown on page 121. The solution in one equation often makes it possible to see mentally the exact net or a close approximation to it. The authors' solution should be

$$\text{Net cost} = .80 \times .90 \times \$1,250$$

4. Finding the single equivalent of two discounts is to be commended, but the methods used by the authors must be condemned. If the principle of the single equivalent discount (sum-product) is established, it becomes a valuable computing device which enables one to arrive at the net price in the case of two discounts with one written computation.

J. A. D.

BOOK REVIEWS

English for American High Schools, by Walter Barnes. Chicago: Rand, McNally and Company, 1932, 648 pages, \$1.60.

English for American High Schools is designed to assist students to carry on more effectively the types of language activity that are most important in social communication. Part one covers conversation, story-telling, speech making, argument, friendly letter, business letter, and other practical language activities. Part two, designed for reference, study, and drill, is devoted to a discussion of the tools and mechanics of language. The course calls for reflection, analysis, judgment, initiative, and production. The high degree of motivation and the genuineness of the language situations inspire in students a desire for self-improvement.

Plane Geometry, by Mabel Sykes. Chicago: Rand, McNally and Company, 1932, 460 pages, \$1.28.

This textbook humanizes geometry, emphasizing its beauty and usefulness. Geometric reasoning is made more enjoyable by showing how it fits in with life experiences and situations. Clear and orderly thinking is stressed throughout. In connection with each exercise and theorem, there is given a brief statement of the plan or analysis to be used in solving the exercise or theorem. It gives the student at the outset the gist of the argument, calls his attention to the method of proof employed, and gives him some idea of how the proof may have been thought out originally. The material is arranged for easy adaptability to classes and pupils of varying ability as well as to any teaching procedure. In addition to a "minimum-essentials" course, there is additional work for brighter pupils. Summaries, special review exercises, and survey tests add to the usability of the textbook.

A Program of Art Education. Hartford, Connecticut: State Board of Education, 1932, 117 pages.

The approach and the underlying principle that characterize this program are excellent. It is an outgrowth of a cooperative enterprise studied, planned, and arranged by competent people who supplied material from many sources and unified their efforts towards an obviously worthy aim.

Attempting to capture the varied temperaments of the children, to supply material for furthering the development of creative powers, and to sharpen the pupil's powers of observation and apprecia-

tion, the *Program of Art Education* for Connecticut contributes through its highly selective arrangement of material a workable plan for developing appreciative, beauty-loving, and discriminating citizens.

The subject matter for various grades is arranged with consideration for the capabilities and interests of the pupils. Bimonthly outlines found in section 8 treat each project with a view towards individual differences in pupils and permit the teacher to use her own method of approach and presentation.

This program supplies for the pupil, teacher, supervisor, and superintendent inspiration coupled with convenient references which make it indispensable to all.

E. REILLY

Achievement in the Junior High School, by Bancroft Beatley. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1932, xiv + 92 pages, \$2.00.

This study is an addition to the small but increasing library of scientific investigations in the field of education. In this case, Professor Beatley set out to investigate the claim that junior-high-school students lose because those schools do not spend as much time on fundamentals (reading, language, arithmetic, social studies, and science) as do the older type seventh- and eighth-grade elementary and freshman-high-school organizations. The method was to select comparable groups from junior-high-school and nonjunior-high-school systems and to compare them in achievement between the seventh and ninth grades. This was done by means of the Stanford achievement tests.

The conclusion was reached that achievement in the fundamentals is approximately the same under the two systems. In other words, decreasing the time allotted to these subjects does not decrease achievement in them. This raises the question, mentioned by Professor Beatley in his summary, whether we have yet reached the point of diminishing returns or whether further reduction of time will yield the same results. It is well to keep in mind while reading the results of this investigation that the fundamental objectives of the junior high school posit that no valid measurement therein can be gauged by factual tests per se.

A side point raised by this investigation concerns the validity of the Otis self-administering test of mental ability. The Otis intermediate test was used to determine I.Q. in the seventh grade, while

the higher test was used in the ninth grade. The results obtained were so erratic that the only possible conclusion was that the tests were imperfectly standardized with respect to each other.

F. W. SWIFT

Men At Work, by Lewis W. Hine. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932, \$1.75.

A collection of striking photographic studies of men at work in some of the jobs typical of modern industry. Scenes from the building of a skyscraper, from the running of railroad trains, and from the construction of an airplane convey vivid impressions of the skill, the interest, and the courage which men bring to the tasks imposed by the machine age. More than this, one is struck by the extent to which men are thrilled with the romance of the day's work. These studies should be of value to teachers who have any responsibility for vocational information and guidance, and are full of interest for readers in all walks of life. A. D. W.

Elements of Economics, by Charles Ralph Fay. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932, 613 pages.

This is a revised edition of the book by the same name and author, the earlier edition having been published in 1927. In the revision, the author has brought the book down to date. Some new paragraphs have been added and many others have been expanded which has made for clarity of expression in many instances. Theoretical portions of the book, especially those dealing with marginal productivity, theory of distribution, wage theories, and theories of interest, have been dropped or very much simplified.

At the end of each chapter, a set of true-false tests has been included. These should be valuable as a teaching device. The classified bibliography at the end of each chapter should be valuable to teachers and students.

From every standpoint the book has been improved, hence it will, no doubt, continue to be one of the leading books in economics for the secondary schools.

JOHN N. ANDREWS

Scientific Method, by Truman Lee Kelley. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932, ix + 233 pages, \$1.50.

This book is a compilation of various lectures and addresses given by the author. Although each

chapter has a significant bearing upon scientific method, there is no continuity of theme between the chapters. This independence between chapters allows one to read and digest one chapter at a sitting. The text assumes some familiarity on the part of the reader with the major issues of scientific method.

In his chapter on Measurement of Social Studies, Kelley points out the limitations of the present objective tests, maintaining that our present attempts at measurement concern themselves with approximately 95 per cent informational material. He further states that before we can have an adequate evaluation of learning, objective tests must be constructed to evaluate attitudes, outlooks, and the right use of laws and principles. One will find a very excellent treatment of the questionnaire as an instrument for use in research in his chapter on The Role of Judgment. The reader will find the chapter on Education and Inheritance one of the most interesting. Here the author reveals the extent to which recent scientific development can help towards the solution of curriculum problems, problems of individual differences, and the problem of racial betterment.

The subject of scientific method is treated in a broad, balanced manner. Due consideration is given to its limitations and to the need for human understanding as an adjunct to scientific understanding.

E.R.G.

Fundamentals of Journalism, by Ivan Benson. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1932, xiv + 333 pages, \$1.60.

Mr. Benson offers in this book a text for use in secondary-school courses in journalism. Although it is a textbook, it is written in a terse, clear style particularly applicable to the subject. The treatment of the subject matter is definitely vocational, chapters being devoted to such matters as News-Story Form, Gathering the News, Constructing the Lead, Interviewing, and the various types of stories. The result has no particular unity, coherence, or emphasis, but it is practical and will tell the student what he wants to know.

No thought is given to the social philosophy behind the type of reporting taught; probably this is not the place for it. Mention should be made of the liberal sprinkling of real news stories taken from real newspapers which are used to illustrate the text.

To a strictly vocational course in journalism, this book will be very useful and, in addition, it

BOOK REVIEWS

would be a good book to recommend to the aspiring cub reporter who wants to learn the rules of the game as quickly as possible.

F. W. SWIFT

Business Dictation, by Charles A. Thomas. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1932, 353 pages, \$1.40.

To facilitate rhythm in the writing of shorthand and to provide a perfectly controlled shorthand-writing load for any material, this text introduced the stroke-word. By dictating stroke-words the speed per minute remains constant at a given speed no matter how the syllabic intensity of the material may be.

The book is divided into four divisions on the basis of the length of the letters and each of these parts is carefully graded for difficulty. The book is planned for the use of students who have mastered the greater portion of the theory work and are ready for dictation. The latter are to be given daily assignments and dictated as familiar material.

C.M.

Modern Business Geography, revised edition, by Ellsworth Huntington, and Sumner W. Cushing. Yonkers: World Book Company, 1932, xii + 352 pages, \$1.96.

This is a second revised edition of the book which was written in 1925. It was revised in 1930. Now the authors bring it up-to-date by adding significant data that have changed within the last two years. It is designed for students who have finished the elementary course in geography.

There are two characteristics of the book which have been emphasized: first, it is grounded on the economic basis expressed in the four terms, primary production, transportation, manufacturing, and consumption; second, it combines a large number of stimulating problems with an interesting text that guides the pupils and helps them to work out the problems.

The important industries of the United States are treated rather fully and considerable attention is given in the last chapters to international problems as they relate to the United States. The chapter on Foreign Countries and World Markets is especially well developed.

High-school students should find this a stimulating book, due to the interesting presentation of materials with which they are already somewhat familiar. Teachers should find the book highly satisfactory from the standpoint of materials and

methods. The projects and problems at the end of each section are especially interesting.

JOHN N. ANDREWS

Health Studies—Personal Health, by F. M. Gregg and Hugh C. Rowell. Yonkers: World Book Company, 1932, 314 pages.

This book is made up of units of work based primarily on the structure and function of the organism, with an inclusion of proper health practices involved to maintain normal functioning.

Interesting experiments clearly stated, together with questions and a list of problems for further investigation, are organized for each unit.

The first chapter, How to Take Stock of Yourself, contains excellent suggestions for a self-survey which does not tend to make a boy or a girl introspective.

The contents and general plan of the units will tend to develop an interest in the experiments and problems raised, but whether self-direction in proper ways of living will be built is questionable.

Our present knowledge of proper posture is so unscientific that many of the author's statements regarding this topic cannot be substantiated. There are a few other instances where the material has not been brought up-to-date scientifically. The book, however, has a contribution to make and should prove of considerable value in the junior-high-school level.

MARGUERITE M. HUSSEY

Pleasant Lands, by Arthur I. Gates and Jean Y. Ayer. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932, 472 pages, \$.88.

The fifth book of the work-play series of readers by Arthur I. Gates and Jean Y. Ayer has the pleasing title of *Pleasant Lands*. Its content is divided into eight sections, containing material which should be of interest to a wide range of child readers. Four-Footed Folk, Merry Stories, Looking Backward, Make-Believe, Folk Tales, In Other Lands, Sea Stories, and True Stories About Our Own Country are the titles of the sections. Each story is followed by the usual checks such as, Find the Answer, Things to Do, etc. The most valuable part of this phase of the book is the suggestions for further reading.

The question arises in the mind of the reviewer as to whether children of this reading age are not more interested in a book which contains more unity; that is, in which the same characters are carried throughout the entire book.

BONNIE E. MELLINGER

The Story of Man's Early Progress, by Willis Mason West. New York: Allyn and Bacon, 1931, xviii + 655 + 48 pages.

A comprehensive, profusely illustrated, and well-planned presentation of the history of mankind from its beginning until the French Revolution. It is divided into seven parts as follows: (1) Early Bronze Civilizations, (2) The Greeks, (3) Rome, (4) The Roman Empire, (5) Romano-Teutonic Europe, (6) From the Crusades to the Reformation, and (7) From Columbus to the French Revolution.

Emphasis is placed on the home life, the early work, and the ways of thinking of the peoples of successive periods. Full treatment is given to progress in science and invention, especially to the steps by which man has been taken from drudgery and given access to better conditions of living. The author has to a great extent realized his aim to make the past live again in the mind of youth and to present history as the common and as yet unfinished adventure of mankind. A.D.W.

In Defense of Tomorrow, by Robert Douglas Bowden. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1931, 210 pages, \$2.00.

Professor Bowden is head of the department of social sciences at Youngstown College, Youngstown, Ohio. His book was awarded the John G. Agar prize for the best book on the soul of America in a contest sponsored by the National Arts Club. It holds for the reader the possibility of deriving considerable comfort from an optimistic interpretation and defense of the machine age. Successive chapters deal with religion and culture, politics and government, education, art and literature, and social integration. In each field Professor Bowden's interpretation of conditions leads him to look with hopefulness to the future.

In the concluding chapter on social integration, one finds the following summary of the viewpoint, "What some have taken for regimentation is—integration of forces to prevent stagnation; what some have called burdens are—counterweights in the process of lightening burdens; what some see as spiritual corrosion is—spiritual reintegration around a new set of values. . . ."

The author's thesis is supported by extensive quotations and he takes due note of the black marks against our social order, but he sees a large measure of order and sequence in the advance of American civilization. If the present reader finds it a bit difficult, in view of current conditions

and events, to agree with the author in his hopeful attitude, doubtless many others will welcome a refreshing optimism, based on such a scholarly study of events. A.D.W.

Social Problems, by Ezra T. Towne. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1931, xxiii + 489 pages, \$1.68.

In this revised edition of a work which first appeared in 1916, Professor Towne brings up-to-date a comprehensive analysis of the outstanding problems of the American social order. Though the author's attention is centered on the evils or weaknesses of our social system, yet the spirit is one of optimism based on knowledge of achievement and of inspiration to greater future efforts.

Among the problems studied are those of immigration, child labor, unemployment, women in industry, crime and punishment, marriage and divorce, liquor, and the conservation of natural resources. The treatment makes the book especially useful for beginners in the field of social studies. Pure theory is subordinated to a presentation of facts and an analysis of conditions. The bibliographies are extensive and each chapter is followed by a set of supplementary questions to serve as a guide to study. A.D.W.

Modern Psychologies and Education, by Clarence E. Ragsdale. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932, xviii + 407 pages, \$2.25.

With a refreshing degree of freedom from prejudice and bias, Professor Ragsdale sets forth the distinctive characteristics of the recognized schools of psychology. He may fairly be called an eclectic psychologist. In a time when widespread discussion is devoted to the defense of various systems, Professor Ragsdale leaves his readers with the feeling that one cannot be thrust into one school of psychology and held there; that psychology as a science will become more closely related to other sciences; that lines of demarcation will tend to become less definite, as in the case of the formerly predicated distinct separations between physics and chemistry, between biology and sociology, etc.

One is confronted by Professor Ragsdale's conclusion that when psychologists undertake to deal with human beings so as to accomplish desired results, they agree to a great extent in the selection of methods to be used. Disagreement among psychologists is more largely in fundamental conceptions of the technique of mental activities than in

BOOK REVIEWS

methods of procedure for the attainment of specified outcomes. This reader found the book stimulating and informing and recommends it to others who are puzzled and disturbed by the current psychologies. A.D.W.

Problems of Teaching Economics, by Paul S. Lomax and Herbert A. Tonne. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1932, 365 pages.

The authors conceive this book to be a "classroom manual of practical helps for teachers of the subject of economics in secondary schools, collegiate schools, and in teacher-training institutions." While it must be admitted they were ambitious in undertaking such a "manual," they have been highly successful in contributing many helpful suggestions for teachers in the field of economics. Also, the book will, no doubt, prove valuable to teachers of other social-science subjects. The book should certainly give present and prospective teachers of economics definite guidance in the development of a sounder program of instruction in their subject.

Twelve chapters are included in the book which comprises 365 pages. Among the chapters are: Objectives and Aims in the Teaching of Economics, Functions of Economics Education, Character Training in Economics, Methods of Teaching Economics, Problems of Subject Matter, Devices of Use in the Teaching of Economics, Measurement of Teaching in Economics, and Professional Preparation of the Economics Teacher.

A list of problems and important references are given at the end of each chapter. These should be valuable to the teachers of economics. In addition to serving as a guide for teachers of the subject, the book should be useful as a text in classes dealing with methods of teaching economics.

Not much has been done heretofore in the methodology of economics. Teachers themselves have not agreed as to the best procedure. Perhaps the concrete proposals which have been made will help to give synthesis to the best practices in the teaching of economics on the secondary and college levels.

JOHN N. ANDREWS

Concentration of Control in American Industry, by Harry W. Laidler. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1931, xvi + 501 pages, \$3.75.

In any economics course which teaches economics as it is, not as the classical theorists thought it was, this book should certainly be used, for it shows primarily how far away from theory our

from C. W. La Grone's review of Cowley's PLANE GEOMETRY in the February Clearing House

"A few of the many good points may be summarized as follows:

Well-constructed figures; good clear type which lessens eye strain; a long introduction which includes the following: strong motivation through the natural uses of geometry, well-organized material accompanied by a sufficient number of simple exercises to fix the elementary concepts, familiar geometric figures in nature and in art, easy approach to congruent triangles and parallel lines; many optional review exercises from which to select work; many good matching tests; tables of squares and square roots; table of formulas; short but excellent treatment of functional relations; congruency of triangles by theoretical superposition at the close of the book." Read the whole review in your copy—pages 383-384.



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economic institution has gone. Any reasonably mature student whose attention is called to it will enjoy browsing in it, for here is the background to the stories in the daily papers. On the other hand, it is so filled with facts and figures that memorization is a well-nigh impossible feat, as well as being useless, for most of the figures are already wrong and are useful only as showing trends.

Mr. Laidler has done an excellent job in arranging all this material and presenting it to the public in readable form, for it is the sort of thing that has developed only recently and that only the experts in the field really know about, and the more the public knows about it, the better it will probably be for all concerned. F. W. SWIFT

We, the People, by Leo Huberman. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1932, xii + 375 pages, \$3.50.

"The Drama of America for Young America" says the jacket, and that is just what it is. Mr. Huberman has made this story extremely dramatic and easily comprehensible to young people. Instead of a series of wars and presidential terms, we have the dynamic logical story unfolding before us. The emphasis has changed completely. In this book, the important parts of history are the great popular movements, the westward trek, the immigrations, the important points of difference between sections of the country; hardly a page apiece is given to the wars.

The question that a book like this raises is whether or not to indoctrinate, and if so, what. In his effort to avoid the "God's-in-his-heaven-all's-right-with-the-world attitude," Mr. Huberman approaches the other extreme. Throughout, he emphasizes struggles and opposing points of view which cannot be integrated. White man versus Indian, mother country versus colonies, rich versus poor, farmer versus manufacturer, capital versus labor; all these and others. A book like this, intelligently used, should do more to help the pupils to think for themselves than almost any other agency. If they agree with its main thesis, excellent; if they can be made to intelligently disagree with its conclusions, so much the better.

Mention should be made of the excellent illustrations by Thomas H. Benton and of the highly entertaining yarns and anecdotes with which the book is sprinkled. F. W. SWIFT

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JAY B. NASH, *Chairman*

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